

T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For A U G U S T, 1794.

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*The Mysteries of Udolpho, a Romance; interspersed with some Pieces of Poetry. By Ann Radcliffe, Author of the Romance of the Forest, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. Boards. Robinsons. 1794.*

‘**T**HINE too these golden keys, immortal boy!  
This can unlock the gates of joy,  
Of horror, that and thrilling fears,  
Or ope the sacred source of sympathetic tears.’

Such were the presents of the Muse to the infant Shakspeare, and though perhaps to no other mortal has she been so lavish of her gifts, the keys referring to the third line Mrs. Radcliffe must be allowed to be completely in possession of. This, all who have read the Romance of the Forest will willingly bear witness to. Nor does the present production require the name of its author to ascertain that it comes from the same hand. The same powers of description are displayed, the same predilection is discovered for the wonderful and the gloomy—the same mysterious terrors are continually exciting in the mind the idea of a supernatural appearance, keeping us, as it were, upon the very edge and confines of the world of spirits, and yet are ingeniously explained by familiar causes; curiosity is kept upon the stretch from page to page, and from volume to volume, and the secret, which the reader thinks himself every instant on the point of penetrating, flies like a phantom before him, and eludes his eagerness till the very last moment of protracted expectation. This art of escaping the guesses of the reader has been improved and brought to perfection along with the reader’s sagacity; just as the various inventions of locks, bolts, and private drawers, in order to secure, fasten, and hide, have always kept pace with the ingenuity of the pickpocket and housebreaker, whose profession it is to unlock, unfasten, and lay open what you have taken so much pains to conceal. In this contest of curiosity on one side, and invention on the other, Mrs. Radcliffe has certainly the advantage. She delights in concealing her plan with the

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most artificial contrivance, and seems to amuse herself with saying, at every turn and doubling of the story, 'Now you think you have me, but I shall take care to disappoint you.' This method is, however, liable to the following inconvenience, that in the search of what is new, an author is apt to forget what is natural; and, in rejecting the more obvious conclusions, to take those which are less satisfactory. The trite and the extravagant are the Scylla and Charybdis of writers who deal in fiction. With regard to the work before us, while we acknowledge the extraordinary powers of Mrs. Radcliffe, some readers will be inclined to doubt whether they have been exerted in the present work with equal effect as in the *Romance of the Forest*.—Four volumes cannot depend entirely on terrific incidents and intricacy of story. They require character, unity of design, a delineation of the scenes of real life, and the variety of well supported contrast. The *Mysteries of Udolpho* are indeed relieved by much elegant description and picturesque scenery; but in the descriptions there is too much of sameness: the pine and the larch tree wave, and the full moon pours its lustre through almost every chapter. Curiosity is raised oftener than it is gratified; or rather, it is raised so high that no adequate gratification can be given it; the interest is completely dissolved when once the adventure is finished, and the reader, when he is got to the end of the work, looks about in vain for the spell which had bound him so strongly to it. There are other little defects, which impartiality obliges us to notice. The manners do not sufficiently correspond with the æra the author has chosen; which is the latter end of the sixteenth century. There is, perhaps, no direct anachronism, but the style of accomplishments given to the heroine, a country young lady, brought up on the banks of the Garonne; the mention of botany; of little circles of infidelity, &c. give so much the air of modern manners, as is not counterbalanced by Gothic arches and antique furniture. It is possible that the manners of different ages may not differ so much as we are apt to imagine, and more than probable that we are generally wrong when we attempt to delineate any but our own; but there is at least a style of manners which our imagination has appropriated to each period, and which, like the costume of theatrical dress, is not departed from without hurting the feelings.—The character of Annette, a talkative waiting-maid, is much worn, and that of the aunt, madame Cheron, is too low and selfish to excite any degree of interest, or justify the dangers her niece exposes herself to for her sake. We must likewise observe, that the adventures do not sufficiently point to one centre: we do not, however, attempt to analyse the story; as it would have no other effect than



than destroying the pleasure of the reader, we shall content ourselves with giving the following specimen of one of those picturesque scenes of terror, which the author knows so well to work up:

During the remainder of the day, Emily's mind was agitated with doubts and fears and contrary determinations, on the subject of meeting this Barnardine on the rampart, and submitting herself to his guidance, she scarcely knew whither. Pity for her aunt and anxiety for herself alternately swayed her determination, and night came, before she had decided upon her conduct. She heard the castle clock strike eleven—twelve—and yet her mind wavered. The time, however, was now come, when she could hesitate no longer: and then the interest she felt for her aunt overcame other considerations, and bidding Annette follow her to the outer door of the vaulted gallery, and there await her return, she descended from her chamber. The castle was perfectly still, and the great hall, where so lately she had witnessed a scene of dreadful contention, now returned only the whispering footsteps of the two solitary figures gliding fearfully between the pillars, and gleamed only to the feeble lamp they carried. Emily, deceived by the long shadows of the pillars, and by the catching lights between, often stopped, imagining she saw some person, moving in the distant obscurity of the perspective; and, as she passed these pillars, she feared to turn her eyes towards them, almost expecting to see a figure start out from behind their broad shaft. She reached, however, the vaulted gallery, without interruption, but unclosed its outer door with a trembling hand, and, charging Annette not to quit it, and to keep it a little open, that she might be heard if she called, she delivered to her the lamp, which she did not dare to take herself because of the men on watch, and, alone, stepped out upon the dark terrace. Every thing was so still, that she feared lest her own light steps should be heard by the distant sentinels, and she walked cautiously towards the spot, where she had before met Barnardine, listening for a sound, and looking onward through the gloom in search of him. At length, she was startled by a deep voice, that spoke near her, and she paused, uncertain whether it was his, till it spoke again, and she then recognized the hollow tones of Barnardine, who had been punctual to the moment, and was at the appointed place, resting on the rampart wall. After chiding her for not coming sooner, and saying, that he had been waiting nearly half an hour, he desired Emily, who made no reply, to follow him to the door through which he had entered the terrace.

While he unlocked it she looked back to that she had left, and observing the rays of the lamp stream through a small opening, was certain that Annette was still there. But her remote situation could little besfriend Emily, after she had quitted the terrace; and, when

Barnardine unclosed the gate, the dismal aspect of the passage beyond, shewn by a torch burning on the pavement, made her shrink from following him alone, and she refused to go, unless Annette might accompany her. This, however, Barnardine absolutely refused to permit, mingling at the same time with his refusal such artful circumstances to heighten the pity and curiosity of Emily towards her aunt, that she, at length, consented to follow him alone to the portal.

‘He then took up the torch, and led her along the passage, at the extremity of which he unlocked another door, whence they descended, a few steps, into a chapel, which, as Barnardine held up the torch to light her, Emily observed to be in ruins, and she immediately recollected a former conversation of Annette, concerning it, with very unpleasant emotions. She looked fearfully on the almost roofless walls, green with damp, and on the Gothic points of the windows, where the ivy and the briony had long supplied the place of glass, and ran mantling among the broken capitals of some columns, that had once supported the roof. Barnardine stumbled over the broken pavement, and his voice, as he uttered a sudden oath, was returned in hollow echoes, that made it more terrific. Emily’s heart sunk: but she still followed him, and he turned out of what had been the principle aisle of the chapel. “Down these steps, lady,” said Barnardine, as he descended a flight, which appeared to lead into the vaults; but Emily paused on the top, and demanded, in a tremulous tone, whither he was conducting her.

“To the portal,” said Barnardine.

“Cannot we go through the chapel to the portal?” said Emily.

“No, Signora; that leads to the inner court, which I don’t choose to unlock. This way, and we shall reach the outer court presently.”

‘Emily still hesitated; fearing not only to go on, but, since she had gone thus far, to irritate Barnardine by refusing to go further.

“Come, lady,” said the man, who had nearly reached the bottom of the flight, “make a little haste; I cannot wait here all night.”

“Whither do these steps lead?” said Emily, yet pausing.

“To the portal,” repeated Barnardine, in an angry tone, “I will wait no longer.” As he said this, he moved on with the light, and Emily, fearing to provoke him by further delay, reluctantly followed. From the steps, they proceeded through a passage adjoining the vaults, the walls of which were dropping with unwholesome dews, and the vapours, that crept along the ground, made the torch burn so dimly, that Emily expected every moment to see it extinguished, and Barnardine could scarcely find his way. As they advanced, these vapours thickened, and Barnardine believing the torch was expiring, stopped for a moment to trim it. As he then rested against a pair of iron gates, that opened from the passage,  
Emily



Emily saw, by uncertain flashes of light, the vaults beyond, and near her, heaps of earth, that seemed to surround an open grave. Such an object, in such a scene, would, at any time, have disturbed her; but now she was shocked by an instantaneous presentiment, that this was the grave of her unfortunate aunt, and that the treacherous Barnardine was leading herself to destruction. The obscure and terrible place, to which he had conducted her, seemed to justify the thought; it was a place suited for murder, a receptacle for the dead, where a deed of horror might be committed, and no vestige appear to proclaim it. Emily was so overwhelmed with terror, that, for a moment, she was unable to determine what conduct to pursue. She then considered, that it would be vain to attempt an escape from Barnardine, by flight, since the length and the intricacy of the way she had passed, would soon enable him to overtake her, who was unacquainted with the turnings, and whose feebleness would not suffer her to run long with swiftness. She feared equally to irritate him by a disclosure of her suspicions, which a refusal to accompany him further certainly would do; and, since she was already as much in his power as it was possible she could be, if she proceeded, she, at length, determined to suppress, as far as she could, the appearance of apprehension, and to follow silently whither he designed to lead her. Pale with horror and anxiety, she now waited till Barnardine had trimmed the torch, and, as her sight glanced again upon the grave, she could not forbear enquiring for whom it was prepared. He took his eyes from the torch, and fixed them upon her face without speaking. She faintly repeated the question, but the man, shaking the torch, passed on; and she followed, trembling, to a second flight of steps; having ascended which, a door delivered them into the first court of the castle. As they crossed it, the light shewed the high black walls around them, fringed with long grass and dank weeds, that found a scanty soil among the mouldering stones; the heavy buttresses, with, here and there, between them, a narrow grate, that admitted a freer circulation of air to the court, the massy iron gates that led to the castle, whose clustering turrets appeared above, and, opposite, the huge towers and arch of the portal itself. In this scene the large, uncouth person of Barnardine, bearing the torch, formed a characteristic figure. This Barnardine was wrapt in a long dark cloak, which scarcely allowed the kind of half-boots, or sandals, that were laced upon his legs, to appear, and shewed only the point of a broad sword, which he usually wore, slung in a belt across his shoulders. On his head was a heavy flat velvet cap, somewhat resembling a turban, in which was a short feather; the visage beneath it shewed strong features, and a countenance furrowed with the lines of cunning, and darkened by habitual discontent.

The view of the court, however, reanimated Emily, who, as she crossed silently towards the portal, began to hope, that her own fears, and not the treachery of Barnardine, had deceived her. She

looked anxiously up at the first casement, that appeared above the lofty arch of the portcullis; but it was dark, and she enquired, whether it belonged to the chamber, where Madame Montoni was confined. Emily spoke low, and Barnardine, perhaps, did not hear her question, for he returned no answer; and they, soon after, entered the postern door of the gate-way, which brought them to the foot of a narrow stair case, that wound up one of the towers.

“Up this stair-case the Signora lies,” said Barnardine.

“Lies!” repeated Emily faintly, as she began to ascend.

“She lies in the upper chamber,” said Barnardine.

As they passed up, the wind, which poured through the narrow cavities in the wall, made the torch flare, and it threw a stronger gleam upon the grim and fallow countenance of Barnardine, and discovered more fully the desolation of the place—the rough stone walls, the spiral stairs, black with age, and a suit of ancient armour, with an iron visor, that hung upon the walls, and appeared a trophy of some former victory.

“Having reached a landing-place, “You may wait here, lady,” said he, applying a key to the door of a chamber, “while I go up, and tell the Signora you are coming.”

“That ceremony is unnecessary,” replied Emily, “my aunt will rejoice to see me.”

“I am not so sure of that,” said Barnardine, pointing to the room he had opened: “Come in here, lady, while I step up.”

Emily, surprised and somewhat shocked, did not dare to oppose him further, but, as he was turning away with the torch, desired he would not leave her in darkness. He looked around, and, observing a tripod lamp, that stood on the stairs, lighted and gave it to Emily, who stepped forward into a large old chamber, and he closed the door. As she listened anxiously to his departing steps, she thought he descended, instead of ascending, the stairs; but the gusts of wind, that whistled round the portal, would not allow her to hear distinctly any other sound. Still, however, she listened, and, perceiving no step in the room above, where he had affirmed Madame Montoni to be, her anxiety increased, though she considered, that the thickness of the floor in this strong building might prevent any sound reaching her from the upper chamber. The next moment, in a pause of the wind, she distinguished Barnardine's step descending to the court, and then thought she heard his voice; but, the rising gust again overcoming other sounds, Emily, to be certain on this point, moved softly to the door, which, on attempting to open it, she discovered was fastened. All the horrid apprehensions, that had lately assailed her, returned at this instant with redoubled force, and no longer appeared like the exaggerations of a timid spirit, but seemed to have been sent to warn her of her fate. She now did not doubt, that Madame Montoni had been murdered, perhaps in this very chamber; or that she herself was brought hither for the same purpose.



purpose. The countenance, the manners, and the recollected words of Barnardine, when he had spoken of her aunt, confirmed her worst fears. For some moments, she was incapable of considering of any means, by which she might attempt an escape. Still she listened, but heard footsteps neither on the stairs, nor in the room above; she thought, however, that she again distinguished Barnardine's voice below, and went to a grated window, that opened upon the court, to enquire further. Here, she plainly heard his hoarse accents, mingling with the blast, that swept by, but they were lost again so quickly, that their meaning could not be interpreted; and then the light of a torch, which seemed to issue from the portal below, flashed across the court, and the long shadow of a man, who was under the arch-way, appeared upon the pavement. Emily, from the hugeness of this sudden portrait, concluded it to be that of Barnardine; but other deep tones, which passed in the wind, soon convinced her he was not alone, and that his companion was not a person very liable to pity.

When her spirits had overcome the first shock of her situation, she held up the lamp to examine if the chamber afforded a possibility of an escape. It was a spacious room, whose walls, wainscoted with rough oak, shewed no casement but the grated one, which Emily had left, and no other door than that, by which she had entered. The feeble rays of the lamp, however, did not allow her to see at once its full extent; she perceived no furniture, except, indeed, an iron chair, fastened in the centre of the chamber, immediately over which, depending on a chain from the ceiling, hung an iron ring. Having gazed upon these, for some time, with wonder and horror, she next observed iron bars below, made for the purpose of confining the feet, and on the arms of the chair were rings of the same metal. As she continued to survey them, she concluded, that they were instruments of torture, and it struck her, that some poor wretch had once been fastened in this chair, and had there been starved to death. She was chilled by the thought; but, what was her agony, when, in the next moment, it occurred to her, that her aunt might have been one of these victims, and that she herself might be the next! An acute pain seized her head, she was scarcely able to hold the lamp, and, looking round for support, was seating herself, unconsciously, in the iron chair itself; but suddenly perceiving where she was, she started from it in horror, and sprung towards a remote end of the room. Here again she looked round for a seat to sustain her, and perceived only a dark curtain, which, descending from the ceiling to the floor, was drawn along the whole side of the chamber. Ill as she was, the appearance of this curtain struck her, and she paused to gaze upon it, in wonder and apprehension.

It seemed to conceal a recess of the chamber; she wished, yet dreaded, to lift it, and to discover what it veiled: twice she was withheld

withheld by a recollection of the terrible spectacle her daring hand had formerly unveiled in an apartment of the castle, till, suddenly conjecturing, that it concealed the body of her murdered aunt, she seized it, in a fit of desperation, and drew it aside. Beyond, appeared a corpse, stretched on a kind of low couch, which was crimsoned with human blood, as was the floor beneath. The features, deformed by death, were ghastly and horrible, and more than one livid wound appeared in the face. Emily, bending over the body, gazed, for a moment, with an eager, frenzied eye; but, in the next, the lamp dropped from her hand, and she fell senseless at the foot of the couch.

When her senses returned, she found herself surrounded by men, among whom was Barnardine, who were lifting her from the floor, and then bore her along the chamber. She was sensible of what passed, but the extreme languor of her spirits did not permit her to speak, or move, or even to feel any distinct fear. They carried her down the stair-case, by which she had ascended; when, having reached the arch-way, they stopped, and one of the men, taking the torch from Barnardine, opened a small door, that was cut in the great gate, and, as he stepped out upon the road, the light he bore shewed several men on horseback, in waiting. Whether it was the freshness of the air, that revived Emily, or that the objects she now saw roused the spirit of alarm, she suddenly spoke, and made an ineffectual effort to disengage herself from the grasp of the ruffians, who held her.

Barnardine, meanwhile, called loudly for the torch, while distant voices answered, and several persons approached, and, in the same instant, a light flashed upon the court of the castle. Again he vociferated for the torch, and the men hurried Emily through the gate. At a short distance, under the shelter of the castle walls, she perceived the fellow, who had taken the light from the porter, holding it to a man, busily employed in altering the saddle of a horse, round which were several horsemen, looking on, whose harsh features received the full glare of the torch; while the broken ground beneath them, the opposite walls, with the tufted shrubs, that overhung their summits, and an embattled watch-tower above, were reddened with the gleam, which, fading gradually away, left the remoter ramparts and the woods below to the obscurity of night.

"What do you waste time for, there?" said Barnardine with an oath, as he approached the horsemen. "Dispatch—dispatch."

"The saddle will be ready in a minute," replied the man who was buckling it, at whom Barnardine now swore again, for his negligence, and Emily, calling feebly for help, was hurried towards the horses, while the ruffians disputed on which to place her, the one designed for her not being ready. At this moment a cluster of lights issued from the great gates, and she immediately heard the shrill voice of Annette above those of several other persons, who advanced



advanced. In the same moment, the distinguished Montoni and Cavigni, followed by a number of ruffian-faced fellows, to whom she no longer looked with terror, but with hope, for, at this instant, she did not tremble at the thought of any dangers that might await her within the castle, whence so lately and so anxiously she had wished to escape. Those, who threatened her from without, had engrossed all her apprehensions.

‘A short contest ensued between the parties, in which that of Montoni, however, were presently victors, and the horsemen, perceiving that numbers were against them, and being, perhaps, not very warmly interested in the affair they had undertaken, galloped off, while Barnardine had run far enough to be lost in the darkness, and Emily was led back into the castle. As she re-passed the courts, the remembrance of what she had seen in the portal-chamber came, with all its horror, to her mind; and when, soon after, she heard the gate close, that shut her once more within the castle walls, she shuddered for herself, and, almost forgetting the danger she had escaped, could scarcely think, that any thing less precious than liberty and peace was to be found beyond them.’

These volumes are interspersed with many pieces of poetry, some beautiful, all pleasing, but rather monotonous. We cannot resist the temptation of giving our readers the following charming one, more especially as poetical beauties have not a fair chance of being attended to, amidst the stronger interest inspired by such a series of adventures. The love of poetry is a taste; curiosity is a kind of appetite, and hurries headlong on, impatient for its complete gratification:

#### ‘THE SEA-NYMPH.

‘Down, down a thousand fathom deep,  
Among the sounding seas I go;  
Play round the foot of every steep  
Whose cliffs above the ocean grow.

There, within their secret caves,  
I hear the mighty rivers roar;  
And guide their streams through Neptune’s waves  
To bless the green earth’s inmost shore:

And bid the fresher’d waters glide,  
For fern-crown’d nymphs of lake, or brook,  
Through winding woods and pastures wide,  
And many a wild, romantic nook.

For this the nymphs, at fall of eve,  
Oft dance upon the flow’ry banks,  
And sing my name, and garlands weave  
To bear beneath the wave their thanks.

In

In coral bow'rs I love to lie,  
And hear the surges roll above,  
And through the waters view on high  
The proud ships sail, and gay clouds move.

And oft at midnight's stillest hour,  
When summer seas the vessel lave,  
I love to prove my charming pow'r  
While floating on the moon-light wave.

And when deep sleep the crew has bound,  
And the sad lover musing leans  
O'er the ship's side, I breathe around  
Such strains as speak no mortal means !

O'er the dim waves his searching eye  
Sees but the vessel's lengthen'd shade ;  
Above—the moon and azure sky ;  
Entranc'd he hears, and half afraid !

Sometimes, a single note I swell,  
That, softly sweet, at distance dies ;  
Then wake the magic of my shell,  
And choral voices round me rise !

The trembling youth, charm'd by my strain,  
Calls up the crew, who, silent, bend  
O'er the high deck, but lift in vain ;  
My song is hush'd, my wonders end !

Within the mountain's woody bay,  
Where the tall bark at anchor rides,  
At twilight hour, with tritons gay,  
I dance upon the lapping tides :

And with my sister-nymphs I sport,  
Till the broad sun looks o'er the floods ;  
Then, swift we seek our crystal court,  
Deep in the wave, 'mid Neptune's woods.

In cool arcades and glassy halls,  
We pass the sultry hours of noon,  
Beyond wherever sun-beam falls,  
Weaving sea-flowers in gay festoon.

The while we chant our ditties sweet  
To some soft shell that warbles near ;  
Join'd by the murmuring current, fleet,  
That glide along our halls so clear.

There, the pale pearl and sapphire blue,  
And ruby red, and em'rald green,



Dart from the domes a changing hue,  
And sparry columns deck the scene.

When the dark storm scowls o'er the deep,  
And long, long peals of thunder sound,  
On some high cliff my watch I keep  
O'er all the restless seas around :

Till on the ridgy wave afar  
Comes the lone vessel, labouring flow,  
Spreading the white foam in the air,  
With sail and top-mast bending low.

Then, plunge I 'mid the ocean's roar,  
My way by quiv'ring lightnings shewn,  
To guide the bark to peaceful shore,  
And hush the sailor's fearful groan.

And if too late I reach its side  
To save it from the 'whelming surge,  
I call my dolphins o'er the tide,  
To bear the crew where isles emerge.

Their mournful spirits soon I cheer,  
While round the desert coast I go,  
With warbled songs they faintly hear,  
Oft as the stormy gust sinks low.

My music leads to lofty groves,  
That wild upon the sea-bank wave;  
Where sweet fruits bloom, and fresh spring roves,  
And closing boughs the tempest brave.

Then, from the air spirits obey  
My potent voice they love so well,  
And, on the clouds, paint visions gay,  
While strains more sweet at distance swell.

And thus the lonely hours I cheat,  
Soothing the ship-wreck'd sailor's heart,  
Till from the waves the storms retreat,  
And o'er the east the day-beams dart.

Neptune for this oft binds me fast  
To rocks below, with choral chain,  
Till all the tempest's over-past,  
And drowning seamen cry in vain,

Whoe'er ye are that love my lay,  
Come, when red sun-set tints the wave,  
To the still sands, where fairies play;  
There, in cool seas, I love to lave.

If, in consequence of the criticisms impartiality has obliged us to make upon this novel, the author should feel disposed to ask us, Who will write a better? we boldly answer her, *Yourselves*; when no longer disposed to sacrifice excellence to quantity, and lengthen out a story for the sake of filling an additional volume.

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*The Morbid Anatomy of some of the most important Parts of the Human Body. By Matthew Baillie, M. D. F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Physician of St. George's Hospital. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1793.*

**A**CCURATE statements of the morbid appearances observed in dissections, have hitherto been a great desideratum in medical libraries; and every encouragement is therefore due to gentlemen who communicate the result of their experience in this respect. As to the plan of this publication, we shall relate the intentions of the author in his own words:

‘In the present work we propose to give no cases; but simply an account of the morbid changes of structure which take place in the thoracic and abdominal viscera, in the organs of generation in both sexes, and in the brain. This will be done according to a local arrangement, very much in the same manner as if we were describing natural structure, and will be accompanied with observations upon morbid actions which may occasionally arise. My situation has given me more than the ordinary opportunities of examining morbid structure. Dr. Hunter’s collection contains a very large number of preparations exhibiting morbid appearances, which I can have recourse to at any time for examination. Being physician to a large hospital, and engaged in teaching anatomy, I have also very frequent opportunities of examining diseases in dead bodies. What this work will contain will be principally an account of what I have seen myself; but I shall also take advantage of what has been observed by others. This work is intended to comprehend an account of the most common, as well as many of the very rare appearances of disease in the vital and more important parts of the human body. It is evident from the nature of this work, that it must be progressive: some appearances of disease will be observed in future, with which we are at present totally unacquainted, and others which we know very little of now, will afterwards be known perfectly.’

We shall extract some passages relating to such morbid appearances as may be considered as unusual. Treating of the diseases of the pericardium, he observes,

‘I once had an opportunity of seeing two or three scrofulous tumours,



tumours, growing within the cavity of the pericardium, one of which was nearly as large as a walnut. They consisted of a white soft matter, somewhat resembling curd, or new cheese. The pericardium is a very unusual part of the body to be attacked by scrofula, and therefore this must be a very rare appearance of disease. The tumours had probably been slow in their progress, as in scrofula generally, and this disease could not have been guessed at in the living body.

‘I have twice found (and it has been seen much oftener by an anatomist \* of the best authority) the pericardium so changed as to resemble a common ox’s bladder, in some degree dried, or like a common pericardium which had been for some time exposed to the air.’

‘Cases have occurred, although very rarely, in which a large quantity of blood has been accumulated in the cavity of the pericardium, but where no rupture could be discovered after the most diligent search, either in the heart itself, or in any of its vessels.’

‘It also happens, although I believe very rarely, that a heart is so imperfectly formed as to allow of life being continued for some length of time in a very uncomfortable state, but to be ultimately the cause of death. There are two cases of this sort described by the late Dr. Hunter, and there is one specimen of this malformation preserved in his collection. The malformation preserved in the collection, consists in the right ventricle of the heart being extremely small, and the pulmonary artery being very small also which arises from it. At its origin from the right ventricle it is completely impervious. The ductus arteriosus is open, but forms likewise a small canal, and terminates in the left branch of the pulmonary artery. The right auricle is larger than its natural size, probably from the frequent accumulation of blood in it; and the communication between the two auricles, by means of the foramen ovale, is much larger than usual. The child in whom this malformation was found, had its skin of a very dark colour, had very laborious respiration, and violent action of the heart. It lived only thirteen days.

‘In another case related by Dr. Hunter, the pulmonary artery was very small, especially at its origin, and there was a deficiency in the septum cordis, at the basis of the heart, large enough to allow a small thumb to pass through it. The person in whom this malformation of the heart was found, lived about thirteen years. He never had a fresh complexion, but it was always dark, or tending to black. He was often seized with fits, especially when there was any hurry upon his spirits, or there had been any brisk motion of his body.

‘It is obvious that in these deviations from the natural structure,

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\* Mr. Hunter.

too small a quantity of blood must pass through the lungs to receive the benefit of respiration, and this will be more or less according to the degree of the deviation. The blood will from this cause be of a dark colour, as it is well known that it receives the florid hue from the influence of the air upon it in the lungs. Hence the colour of the skin must be necessarily fallow or dark, and this will be increased when the blood is more than usual accumulated in the viens. It is natural to think that in such structures of the heart, the circulation will be carried on with much more difficulty when it is excited beyond its usual standard. This may even be increased to such a degree that the circulation must for a short time be suspended altogether. It was from this cause, probably, that fits occasionally were produced, as related in one of the cases.

‘It sometimes happens, although I believe rarely, that a portion of the pleura is converted into bone. This consists of a thin plate, and sometimes extends over a pretty broad surface of the pleura. In all the cases which I have seen, the bony matter seemed to me to be exactly like ordinary bone. I have never seen it form a thick irregular knob, but always a thin plate.’

‘The lungs are sometimes, although I believe very rarely, formed into pretty large cells, so as to resemble somewhat the lungs of an amphibious animal. These cells, in the only instance which I have seen of this disease, were most of them of the size of a common garden pea, and some few were so large as to be able to contain a small gooseberry. They were surrounded by a fine transparent capsule, and were so numerous as to occupy more than one half of the portion of the lung which I saw. The only specimen of this sort of disease which I am acquainted with, is in the possession of Mr. Cruikshank; and the person in whom it was found, had been very long subject to difficulty of breathing.’

Speaking of the diseases of the stomach, he observes,

‘A part of the stomach is occasionally formed into a pouch by mechanical means, although very rarely. I have seen one instance of a pouch being so formed, in which five halfpence had been lodged. The coats of the stomach were thinner at that part, but were not inflamed or ulcerated. The halfpence had remained for some considerable time, forming a pouch by their pressure, but had not irritated the stomach in such a manner as to produce inflammation or ulceration.’

Under the article ovaria, the author mentions their conversion into a fatty substance, mixed with teeth and hair; a circumstance which, however extraordinary, is fully ascertained to have happened in several instances. Dr. Baillie also mentions



tions a similar tumour, taken from a man's stomach, and preserved in the collection of the celebrated Ruysch.

As to the plan of this work, we are sorry to remark, that we think Dr. Baillie has done wrong in departing from the footsteps of Morgagni. Dr. Baillie gives a general history of the morbid changes taking place in the body; Morgagni relates particular instances, and after having detailed the symptoms which immediately preceded the death of a patient, presents us with the appearances exhibited on dissection. By thus pointing out and ascertaining the connexion between certain symptoms, and certain deviations from natural structure, he affords the most effectual assistance to the physician, and enables him to judge of the real state of the morbid body, previous to death. It is not our intention, however, to represent this work as void of merit and utility. The style is perspicuous and agreeable, the matter important, and well arranged; and the whole work deserves the attentive perusal of every medical student.

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*A Liberal Version of the Psalms into Modern Language, according to the Liturgy Translation; with copious Notes and Illustrations, partly original, and partly selected from the best Commentators: calculated to render the Book of Psalms intelligible to every Capacity. By William Robert Wake. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1793.*

EVERY well meant attempt to explain the language of Scripture, is certainly intitled to candour; and though Mr. Wake, in the publication before us, should not have equalled the expectations of the few, he probably will give satisfaction to the many. The latter being indeed his principal design, he may, in general, be deemed to have accomplished his purpose.

To the title, however, of a *liberal version*, we confess, we have some objection; not only as it seems to imply a licence to depart from the original, but also as every such departure must proceed either from omitting, or adding to the sense of the author; or from a substitution of something in its stead. If, therefore, in the present instance, Mr. Wake had styled his work a *Paraphrastic Explanation of the Psalms, in modern Language, according to the Liturgical Version*; we think he would have more pertinently described his work: especially, as we do not find that he, at all, hath consulted the Hebrew.

The XXIXth Psalm is annexed, with its argument and notes, as a competent specimen of what is performed.

• PSALM XXIX.

• This Psalm seems to have been composed by David after an extraordinary

ordinary storm of thunder, lightning, and rain; whence it is probable God had so discomfited his enemies, (2 Samuel viii.) and put their forces into such disorder, that he easily obtained the victory over them. Therefore he here exhorts them to submit themselves to that glorious majesty, from whom the tempest proceeded. As there are many Psalms which point to a great victory, obtained with this circumstance of remarkable thunder, it is more reasonable to believe that they were all made upon the same occasion, than that each had a separate one.

‘ Offer unto the Lord, O ye mighty, offer the most precious of your flock unto the Lord! own that to the Lord belongs adoration and power!

‘ 2. Render to the Lord the homage due to his divine dignity; adore the Lord with his own sacred worship!

‘ 3. It is the Lord that commands the waters: it is the glorious God that creates the thunder.

‘ 4. It is the Lord that governs the sea; the voice of the Lord is mighty in its operation: the voice of the Lord is a glorious voice.

‘ 5. The voice of the Lord rends the cedar trees: the Lord rends even the cedars of Lebanon.

‘ 6. He disperses them like a herd of calves: Lebanon also and Sirion, with the swiftness of a young unicorn.

‘ 7. The voice of the Lord flashes forth the lightning; the voice of the Lord shakes the wilderness: the Lord shakes even the wilderness of Cades.

‘ 8. The voice of the Lord forces the timorous doe into labour, and

‘ 4. The voice of the Lord signifies thunder: which in those days was esteemed to attest the divine presence, as to Joshua in the first conquest of Canaan, to Samuel against the Philistines, 1 Sam. xii. 15, and to David against the same enemies: it was also the ordinary mode of communicating the divine decrees, which therefore were styled the daughters of thunder; and lastly, it was the awful ceremony which accompanied the delivery of the law from mount Sinai. These opinions and doctrines of the Jews, induced some of the pagan nations to imagine that they adored the clouds and a deity which resided in them.

‘ 5. This may be an allegorical description of the conquest over the Syrians, who lived near Libanus, or Lebanon: Psalm xcii. a. civ. 16. and 2 Samuel viii.

‘ 6. Sirion was a high mountain on the other side of the river Jordan, near the country of the Ammonites, known also by the names of Hermon and Shenir: Deuteronomy iii. 9. If by Lebanon we are to understand allegorically the Syrians, by Sirion may be meant the Ammonites; and in this view, it is not improbable that the calf and the unicorn were either borne in the standards of these people, or were the hieroglyphicks used to denote them.

‘ 7. Cades was part of that wilderness through which the Israelites passed, in their way to Canaan: Numbers xiii. 26. Thunder shook those wide, extensive deserts, as well as Lebanon and Sirion, mountains of Judea.

‘ 8. Aristotle, Plutarch, and Pliny, mention abortion to be sometimes caused amongst cattle by thunder. Whatever terrifies to any degree, may occasion pre-



and discloses the recesses of the forest: in his temple every man celebrates his glorious power.

' 9. The lord presides over this tempest: and the Lord remains the eternal sovereign.

' 10. The Lord will confer prosperity on his people: the Lord will grant to his people the blessing of peace.'

By comparing the argument with verse 9, there will be found an incongruity which ought to be removed.

With this sublime description of a tempest, that of Virgil might have been properly contrasted:

' Ipse Pater, media nimborum in nocte, corusca  
Fulmina molitur dextra; quo maxuma motu  
Terra tremit: fugere feræ; et mortalia corda  
Per gentes humilis stravit pavor. Ille flagranti  
Aut Atho, aut Rhodopen, aut alta Ceraunia telo  
Dejicit! Ingeminant Austri, et densissimus imber;  
Nunc nemora ingenti vento, nunc littora plangunt.'

Whilst by the change of tense in *fugere*, a presentiment of the storm, in the wild animals, is exquisitely expressed; so, by the manner in which the psalm is closed, the tempest is beautifully stilled into a divine repose.

In some instances, where the psalms were evidently performed in chorus, Mr. Wake has very properly adverted to the circumstance. Uniformity, however, required that this distinction should have been more frequently regarded; and an instance of the light such divisions might afford, will be seen in Dr. Gregory's Translation of bishop Lowth's Lectures, where the CXXXVth psalm is thus distinguished, and in a manner of which Mr. Wake entertains not an idea.

To the CIXth psalm, a long argument is prefixed, which, in our judgment, is but a feeble defence of a false construction. For it is evident to us, that what is represented to be the imprecations of David upon his enemies, are actually theirs upon him. Dr. Sykes hath done much to shew that this is the drift of the psalm, and Mr. Peters still more in a sermon on the subject.

In his notes, Mr. Wake has brought together much illustrative matter, but, we conceive, still more might have been collected, and some that might have superseded in part what we find. For instance, how easily, instead of repeating the following, would a better description have occupied its room?

premature labour, especially amongst the more timid order of animals. The voice of the Lord is said to disclose the recesses of the forest, as violent storms of thunder and lightning, often attended with whirlwinds, strip the trees of their leaves, and discover those interior parts which were before concealed.'

C. R. N. ARR. (XI.) August, 1794.

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'The ten-stringed lute, as we have elsewhere observed, was a psaltery, or decachord.'

This, however, is not often the case.—In illustrating the CXLVIIIth psalm, we have upon the ninth verse, a citation from Thomson, in which a triplet presents itself, perhaps the most perfect in the language :

'9. Who provides fodder for the cattle, and feeds even the young ravens that cry to him \*.'

From the handsome list of subscribers, we shall expect soon to see a new, and, we add, an improved edition, of which Mr. Wake appears to us extremely capable. Of *this*, the paper and print are particularly neat : and, on the whole, we see much reason for commendation, and but little for blame, having carefully pointed out every thing that we apprehended would admit of improvement.

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*Odes Moral and Descriptive. By the Rev. John Whitehouse, of St. John's College, Cambridge. 4to. 3s. 6d. Cadell. 1794.*

THE first stanza of the first of these Odes (to poetical Enthusiasm), prejudiced us in their favour. It is as follows :

'Plaintive my harp, and wild it's tones !  
As when o'er Albion's rocky steep,  
To the vexed surge's fullen moans,  
In hollow accents loud and deep,  
The Spirit of the Ocean calls ;  
And high his hoary scarf unfurls,  
While Neptune through the abyfs his foaming trident  
hurls :  
Riding the billowy clouds afar,

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\* 9. Birds the most despised and useless, and even unclean, (see Leviticus xi. 15.) are, when deserted by their parents, preserved by some unnoticed means of providence. The cry, or cowering, of the young raven, may, in poetical language, be very beautifully considered as a sort of natural prayer to God. Who provides for the raven his food ? When his young ones cry unto God, they wander for lack of meat : Job xxxviii. 41. they wander, and find it. Our Lord pressed this argument on his disciples, Consider the ravens, &c. Luke xii. 24 : and thus beautifully, Thomson :

"Behold, and look away your low-despair !  
See the light tenants of the barren air :  
To them nor stores, nor granaries belong,  
Nought but the woodland, and the pleasing song :  
Yet your kind Heavenly Father bends his eye  
On the least wing that flits along the sky.  
To him they sing when spring renews the plain,  
To him they cry in winter's pinching reign ;  
Nor is their music, nor their plaint, in vain."



Mist-clad Winter's shadowy form  
 Indignant drives his iron car,  
 Horrid with ice, 'midst the resounding halls  
 Of Eolus, dim-feature Sire of storm!  
 Or from Pelorus' shattered side  
 Abrupt some rocky fragment torn  
 High on the midnight Whirlwind borne,  
 With horrid crash commixed of wind and tide,  
 Down the deep vale in circling eddies driven,  
 Rivals the thunder's voice, and rolls it back to heaven.'

The beginning is beautifully abrupt, and the figure of unfurling the hoary scarf is well adapted to illustrate the light foam of the agitated billows. But we cannot say that, as we proceeded, we met with much, either of original sentiment or striking imagery. These Odes, independent of that we have mentioned, are addressed (we do not copy the list from a table of contents, for there is none) to *Ambition*, to *Sleep*, to *War*, to *Horror*, to *Beauty*, to *Truth*, to *Justice*, besides one on the *Death of a favourite Parrot*. These are subjects, the reader will see, of that general nature, and have been so often treated, that it is difficult for a poet to throw over them an air of novelty, though at the same time it is sufficiently easy for him to clothe their attributes in metaphorical language, and to call up the accompaniments of congenial imagery. The traces of imitation are discernible in many epithets and half lines, which, though not all sufficiently appropriate to be referred to any particular author, make a part of that vast storehouse of poetical expression, to which every one who has read much, applies, even without being himself conscious of it. Of this nature are *gnarled oak*, *dædal globe*, *arrowy rays*, *hawberk crashed*, and *helmet rung*. *It leaps in terror forth and wings its destined course*; and such likewise, is now the allegorical genealogy of parent and child to express the relation of cause and effect.

We should be sorry, however, if our readers interpreted what we have said so as to set the Poems of Mr. Whitehouse below their proper point of merit. They are such as could not be written but by a man of taste, though we cannot assert that they display any original genius. The following stanzas to *Sleep* are pleasing and harmonious:

'Soft God of shadows, gentle Sleep,  
 Once more to thee I pay my vow,  
 Again I woo thy murmurs deep  
 To sooth this throbbing breast of mine,  
 And round my arching temples twine  
 The grateful foliage of thy cypress-bough;

Sweet are thy foldings; when the mind,  
 Leaving the load of cares behind,  
 Expatiates 'midst thy visionary reign,  
 And bathes in slumbers bland the wakeful sense of pain.

Sweet are thy foldings; when to bless  
 The spirit faint with trials sore,  
 Thou com'st indulgent, to restore  
 Past scenes of short-lived happiness!  
 When thy fairy-fingers dress  
 The paths where Childhood loved to stray;  
 When Joy with roses strewed the way,  
 And Pleasure, nymph of heavenly birth,  
 Frolicked blithe: with simple Glee,  
 Sport, and rose-lip'd Gaiety,  
 The family of Mirth!

Where playful at the cottage-door,  
 Or in light gambols on the floor,  
 Infant-groupes with daisies crowned,  
 Frisked in many an airy round;  
 Or, with instinctive aim, began  
 To mimic, 'midst their sports, the graver cares of Man.'

In some of the Odes the harmony is too much neglected, and the cadence approaches that of blank verse, or, to say the truth, now and then of humble prose, as in the following lines:

‘ ————— On the day  
 Of final Retribution thou shalt rise  
 To judge with righteousness the earth, and take  
 Vengeance on the transgressors; on their head  
 Thou shalt pour out the vials dread  
 Of fierce displeasure; and within them wake  
 Remorse, and tenfold anguish and dismay.’

In one place *Boccacius's* rhyme is spoken of. But the stories to which he alludes, Theodore and Honoria, and Sigismunda and Guiscardo, are not told in verse by Boccaccio though Dryden has rendered them into poetry: the expression is, therefore, inaccurate. — We have only to add that the sentiments throughout these Odes are liberal, just, and manly.



*A Botanical Arrangement of British Plants; including the Uses of each Species, in Medicine, Diet, rural Economy, and the Arts. With an easy Introduction to the Study of Botany, &c. &c. illustrated by Copper-plates. Second Edition. By William Withering, M.D. F.R.S. including a new Set of References to Figures, partly by the Author, and partly by Jonathan Stokes, M.D. Vol. III. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1792.*

**E**IGHTEEN years have elapsed, since we first noticed Dr. Withering's two first volumes\*, a delay which the botanist must have more sincerely regretted, if the progressive improvements of an inquiring scientific age, if the more enlarged experience, and repeated attention of the author, had not contributed to make this volume much more interesting than it could have been, if it had followed more closely the former. The class cryptogamia was less attended to by Linnæus, because they did not come within the limits of his system: they had no apparent efflorescence, of course could not be arranged from the number or the connection of the stamina or the pistils. The northern naturalist hastily closed the work, by throwing together these apparent exceptions, and assuming, as a principle, what was long doubted, that flowers existed, though they were not conspicuous, and the 'marriages' consequently 'clandestine.' Much, indeed, did not remain for his creative fancy: Micheli, Dillenius, and Gmelin, had seemingly exhausted the subject, and the genera were so few, that natural characters were alone sufficient to distinguish them. At present, we have added greatly to the number of species, but have not increased so much the number of genera, as to prevent the usual arrangement; and Dr. Withering has only altered the order of the species, under each Linnæan subdivision: they are now arranged alphabetically, which, he supposes, by saving time, will 'compensate for any fancied or real relationship between species formerly following each other. It is true, that our acquaintance with plants of the cryptogamia class will not yet allow of any great advantage from an order more natural: the connections are few; the vacuities, in the chain, numerous.

While numerous followers of Dillenius were silently labouring to add to the bulk of a mass, as yet scarcely formed and little understood; a prize question excited the industry of Hedwig, who discovered the efflorescence of the cryptogamia, and formed, from the structure of what we may be permitted to call the flowers, genera founded on the sexual parts. His

\* Cr. Rev. vol. XLII. p. 266.

first discovery related to the leafy mosses, and he published an account of the sexual organs of these plants, in a collection of papers on philosophy and oeconomics, which appeared at Leipzig, in 1778. He promised a fuller account of this subject, and published in 4to, divided into two parts, at the same place, in 1782. At that time, he was in possession of the whole discovery, for he received the prize, from the Petersburg academy, in 1783, and published his dissertation at Petersburg in the following year, with this title: 'Theoria Generationis & Fructificationis Plantarum Cryptogamicarum Linnæi, mere propriis Experimentis & Observationibus superstructa. Such is the outline of the history of the discovery, which few are acquainted with in this kingdom, and which, Dr. Withering remarks, is now, for the first time, made known to the English reader. It has, indeed, frequently occurred in our Journal; but, from the difficulty of explaining the author's ideas, without the plates, we have never fully engaged in the inquiry, though Hedwig's works have been long before us.

Dr. Withering next describes the different parts of the agarics, and explains the grounds of his attempt to reduce this numerous and variable tribe to system. We see no reason for his not adopting synonyms, with a note of interrogation added. If the plant resembles the description, or the plate, so nearly as to raise suspicions and doubts, each will undoubtedly contribute to elucidate the newly discovered one; and, when the real species is discovered, the source of the error will contribute to prevent future mistakes. We shall select Hedwig's description of the fructification of mosses, of ferns, and of mushrooms, preferring those genera, where the description is most clear, without the assistance of the plate.

'*Equisetum.* Hedwig illustrates the structure of this genus by a particular examination of the *equisetum sylvaticum*, and *E. palustre*. The former, as well as the *E. arvense*, protrudes its club-shaped head out of the earth early in the spring. Round this head are placed, in circles, target-shaped substances, each supported on a pedicle, and compressed into angles, in consequence of resting against each other previous to the expansion of the spike. Beneath each of these targets we find from 4 to 7 conical substances, with their points leaning a little inwards towards the pedicle. They open on the inner side, and upon shaking them over a piece of paper, a greenish powdery mass falls out, which at first is full of motion, but soon after looks like cotton, or tow. So far may be discerned by the naked eye, but a good microscope discovers green oval bodies, and attached to each of them, generally four pellucid and very slender threads, spoon-shaped at the end. These are almost constantly in motion, contracting



tracting upon the least breath of moist air, and when wet with water, rolling round the oval body.

‘ In the *equisetum palustre* the threads are broader, and the green oval or globular substance more pointed. This is undoubtedly the seed, for it gradually increases in bulk, and when it falls, the spike shrivels. Its projecting point is the *summit*, and the conical substances under the targets are the capsules.

‘ The scales which surround the flowering stalk at certain distances after its protrusion, served, whilst it was yet young, as a general fence to the spike.

‘ Hence it appears that the genus *equisetum* contains both chives and pointals within the same empalement.

‘ The flowering *spike*, or general empalement, scaly and tiled; the partial empalement target-shaped.’

Hedwig defines the mosses as vegetables, of which the female parts of fructification are furnished with a veil-like petal, bearing a shaft; and they are divided, 1<sup>st</sup>, into the leafy mosses, whose capsule is either entire, lidded, and opening transversely; 2<sup>dly</sup>, the hepatic, including many of the *algæ* of Linnaeus, whose capsules have four valves, and open longitudinally. This excludes the *lycopodium*, which without any great violence may be brought back to the *osmunda*.

The fructification of the *musci frondosi* we cannot either compress or render intelligible; that of the hepatic mosses we shall transcribe.

‘ All the fertile florets have a double empalement, or a cup and a blossom. In shape and structure they greatly resemble the *musci frondosi*; but I have never found the succulent threads; the pointal-like substances are however found, accompanying both the seed-bud and the ripened capsule; but not in all the species.

‘ The capsule, like those of the preceding mosses, is inclosed in a veil, to which the shaft adheres; but this veil is not as in them, loosened at its attachment and raised along with the growing capsule; it tears open in two, three, or four places, and has therefore been sometimes considered as a petal.

‘ All these mosses agree in ripening their fruit, which is raised upon an elongated fruit-stalk, and opens into four valves, filled with the seeds, attached to elastic cords. These seeds proved upon trial to reproduce their respective plants.’

The lichens and the mosses are of singular utility, to protect the tender plants, to feed some animals, and to furnish several vivid dyes. Our own archil is not inferior to the foreign, and any moss may be examined in this respect by moistening it in spirit of sal ammoniac and lime-water, excluding the air for some days. The byssus and the lichens appear on the rocks as the thinnest colouring substance; yet these have their fructi-

fication, their roots, and in their decay they furnish a fine earth, which nourishes some other mosses; and these again prepare the earth for smaller plants, for herbs, shrubs, and trees; finally, for man.

Mushrooms, we know, are perfect plants; and we shall select Ellis' and Hedwig's discoveries. Our readers will not confound the German naturalist with his namesake, the hero of an absurd romance, written in imitation of Lucian's true history.

' All the genera under this division, particularly the *lycoperdon*, and *mucor*, abound with a black powder, which, examined with a good microscope, is found to consist of globules which are supposed to be the seeds. But the baron Munchausen says these globules are semi-transparent, containing a little black particle. He says too, that if this powder is mixed with water and kept in a warm place, the globules presently swell and are changed into egg-shaped self-moving animalcules. In about two days these animalcules unite and form a mass of a pretty firm texture, or fungus. When these fungusses begin to grow, they appear like white veins, which are commonly supposed to be the roots; but in fact they are only tubes in which the animalcules move, and in a short time are transformed into a fungus, which, with plenty of moisture, and a proper degree of warmth, grows to a very large size. The black powder found betwixt the gills of mushrooms produces the same phenomena.

' A fact so singular could not fail to excite the attention of philosophers, and accordingly the accurate and ingenious Mr. Ellis, whose discoveries in many abstruse parts of the animal and vegetable kingdoms do him the highest honor, undertook the subject, and soon demonstrated that the motion of these globules was occasioned by a number of very minute animalcula feeding upon them; but the animalcula being much smaller than the globules are difficult to detect, on which account the baron seems to have overlooked them.'

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' *Agaricus (Amanita) arborea mollis, coloris exacte crocei*, Dill.  
Giff. p. 182.

' On dividing a plant of this species longitudinally through the middle, before the curtain had began to separate from the edge of the pileus, the whole inner surface appeared white; but whilst my attention had been arrested by some still whiter lines observable in the flesh of the pileus and of the stem, the upper and inner surface of the curtain changed to a violet, and in a short time to a brownish colour. On nicely raising a small portion of this surface, and viewing it under high magnifiers, I discovered pellucid succulent vessels, and innumerable oval globules connected therewith, of a dilute brown colour. The part from which this portion had been taken away, did not change colour again.

{ I next



‘ I next examined a portion taken from one of the gills, whilst it was yet white. It was divisible, though not readily, into two lamina. The lower edge was thickly set with tender cylindrical substances, some of which had a globule at their extremities, but others not. The gill itself appeared of a reticulated structure, with larger and more distinct spots, a little raised.

‘ In another older plant of the same species, when the curtain was torn, the pileus pretty fully expanded, and the gills turned yellow, the upper part of the stem began to be tinged by a brown powder shed from the gills. It was evident on examination, that this brown powder was the seeds, and that it proceeded from the larger spots before observed in the gills, the two laminae of which now readily separated.

‘ There is therefore reason to believe that the chives are the globules attached to the threads found within the curtain. After these vanish, the plant continues to grow until it scatters its seeds, and then it dies.

‘ We learn from these observations, that the full expansion of the pileus indicates the maturity of the seeds, and that the following is performed previous to the rupture of the curtain.

‘ On examining the curtains and the rings of different agarics and boleti, I have always found the above-mentioned globules on their upper or inner surface. In some of the yellow agarics they are so numerous on the upper surface, as to stain the fingers when touched, but the under side is smooth and entirely destitute of them. Some few agarics seem to have only a row of these threads beset with globules at the edge of the pileus, whilst it is in contact with the stem, and upon its expansion they shrivel and drop off.

‘ It is true that in many agarics we neither find curtain, nor ring, nor these threads at the edge of the pileus; but when this is the case, the threads are placed upon the stem, and may readily be found by examining the plant in its very young state, before the edge of the pileus separates from the stem. This structure takes place in many of the agarics, the *hydnum imbricatum*, and the boleti, which are rarely furnished with a curtain. After the pileus in these is expanded, and the stem grown longer, its upper part where the chives were seated becomes reticulated. The seeds of the boleti are found within the membrane that lines the tubes.

‘ The stemless agarics and boleti present similar appearances about the edge, and at the base. I have also found something of the same kind in the *peziza cyathoides*, whose seeds appear to be inclosed in a kind of pod; and likewise in one or more of the *lycoperdons*; but these have not yet been sufficiently examined.

‘ Whether the succulent vessels in the margin, or the surface of the gills, or the mouths of the tubes be, or be not, shafts and summits; or whether they are designed for any other purpose, I shall not determine.

‘ It

‘ It is however sufficiently evident, that the agarics, and the boleti, are vegetables, and that they belong to the class monoecia.’

Of a work so extensive, minute, and varied, it is impossible to give any adequate specimen. Our botanical readers are necessarily acquainted with the former volumes, and we need only add, that the present follows with no unequal steps. In fact, it seems to excel the two first volumes, in extent as well as in accuracy of research; to equal them in precision, clearness, and valuable information. One passage of curiosity we shall transcribe.

‘ *BYS'SUS*.

‘ Fibres simple; uniform; like soft wool, or dust.

‘ *Ess. Char.* *Consisting of an exceedingly simple down or powder.*

‘ *Thread-like.*

‘ *BYS'SUS Flos-aquæ.* Threads feathered, swimming upon water.—

‘ In the middle of summer it rises and mixes with the water, which in consequence becomes greenish and turbid, hardly drinkable for several days, but every night it subsides towards the bottom. *Bergius in Linn. succ. n. 1182.* Weis says it is only a matter formed of the particles of aquatic plants dissolved by putrefaction, which being light, rise to the surface of the water.—But I have reason to believe that it will prove to be a conferva, perhaps the *C. bulbosa*. Observing a pond in the state of flowering, as the country people term it, I examined some of the water, but the particles floating in it, were so minute that, even with the assistance of a very good microscope, I could not satisfy myself as to their figure or structure. Two or three weeks later in the spring I found *threads*, not jointed, not branched, either straight or coiled up like a cork-screw. Some of this water, kept in a glass jar, after two or three weeks more, let its contents subside, and then it began to appear like a conferva. The threads soon became much larger, have now a jointed appearance, but at the time of writing this, are still too young to throw out branches.

WITH.

Stagnant waters,

A. May—Aug.’

A first part of this volume was formerly published. It contains an easy introduction to the study of botany, a glossary of Latin and English terms, additions to the two first volumes, errata, and, an index of genera; neither of which require from us any remark.



*The Plays of Lear and Cymbeline, by William Shakspeare. In Two Volumes, with the Notes and Illustrations of various Commentators. To which are added, Remarks by the Editor. 8vo. 12s. Robinsons. 1794.*

SO many editions of Shakspeare, with vast commentaries, have recently appeared, that it is no wonder that the public begins to be satiated with the subject. In a Preface of some length, our present editor explains his intentions; and the following extract must not, in candour to him, be withheld:

‘ But it is time to speak particularly of that which has been the principal object of the editor’s attention, and for the execution of which he must remain solely responsible, namely, an endeavour to mark with clearness the progression of the fable, and trace the connections of its several parts with, and dependence upon each other, so as that they may appear to constitute one consistent whole, and that chiefly with a reference to the circumstances of time and place—And here let no affected contemner of classical prescription, or dramatic regularity, be offended, or disposed to sneer, as if a chimerical purpose were formed, either to discover in the practice of Shakspeare any thing like a conformity to the precepts of Aristotle and the ancient critics, or to try his merits by the rigid rules and scrupulous observances of either the Greek or French theatre: nothing can be more remote from the intention of this publication; with those rules the writer has not, upon the present occasion, any thing to do: though all the positions laid down by Dr. Johnson, in his deservedly celebrated preface touching these points, may not, perhaps, be thought incontrovertibly certain, there is not the least design entertained of disputing the validity of any one of them; every thing that he has there advanced against the necessity of observing what, in the technical phrase, are termed the unities of time and place, shall be admitted in its full latitude and force; all that is aimed at is only to make the fable appear as *consistent*, as possible, *with itself*: the writer knows not how to define his purpose by clearer or more apposite words, and, indeed, however an adherence to those critical niceties (for such they shall be admitted to be) may by the exalted genius just now mentioned, as well as others, have been deemed unessential in the composition of a dramatic poem, in other respects calculated to delight the imagination and affect the heart, yet, surely an attention to consistency at least, one might say, perspicuity, in the disposition of the incidents, and a conformity to reason and the nature of things in the arrangement of events, the offspring of invention, must ever be indispensably necessary to the gratification of an accurate and discriminating mind: the former of these, though in themselves de-

ceiving;

serving, doubtless, of approbation, and, if he, who points out this obvious distinction, be not deceived, capable of affording no inconsiderable pleasure to a judicious reader or spectator, appear, notwithstanding, to be of small value in comparison of the latter—how would the dramas of Shakspeare rise in their estimation, had they not been so materially defective in this most important requisite? And how would the effects of that power, by which they take the strongest hold of our affections, have been promoted by order and congruity? For even while they labour under all the disadvantage that has been complained of, amidst all the wildness and irregularity of his plots on the one hand, and all the elegance of his expressions, strength of his imagery, richness of his descriptive colouring, truth and consistency of his characters, on the other, the principal enjoyment to be derived from his productions, will, perhaps, after all, be found to arise from the interest we take in the progress of the action, and such a combination of incidents, leading to the catastrophe, as is capable of awakening strong curiosity, rousing the sympathetic emotions of the heart, and alarming the passions of hope and fear.

Though Shakspeare therefore may well be supposed to have possessed the power of producing these delightful effects in an extraordinary degree, the circumstances of his fable are oftentimes involved in so great perplexity, and he is, apparently at least, so inattentive to the computation of time in the contrivance of his story, and the proportion its duration ought to bear to the nature of each transaction, as frequently to leave it somewhat doubtful whether he himself had, in all cases, a clear comprehension of the succession of events that lead to the completion of his design: an ingenious modern translator of Aristotle's Poetics has the following remark relating to the first of these two plays, in the form of a note upon a part of the preface to that work: "In the ancient drama, where the stage is always full, I must think probability in some measure violated, if the time of the action is in the least extended beyond what the performance actually takes up. On the modern stage a considerable time may be supposed to elapse between the acts, without any disgust to our feelings: but it is different even there, when the duration is marked by any circumstance of the representation. To take an example from King Lear—In the second act, Lear comes in with all his train to Regan, at Gloucester's castle, having been recently affronted by Goneril. From the circumstance of the storm continuing, it is obvious no time intervenes between the second and third acts, and it is evident the eyes of Gloucester are put out the same night, just as he had relieved the old king upon the heath. Yet, in this time *there is part of a power already footed to revenge the injuries the king now bears.*" And Cornwall says, *The army of France is now landed.* Though, in this place, as Aristotle says of the Odyssey, in chapter xxiv. the impossibility is compensated by  
greater



greater beauties, yet still it is a fault, and that fault must always have attended any violation of the unity of time in the ancient drama, from the continued presence of the chorus."

'The author of the foregoing animadversion is in no danger of being censured for its severity in styling such gross absurdity of conduct a *fault*, neither is the justness of any part of it likely to be contested unless it be that which conveys an intimation, though supported by the authority of Aristotle, that *any beauties*, in a work of imagination, can *compensate* for the violation of, not merely *probability*, but of what may well be termed, *poetic possibility*. The reader will, in the course of the notes upon this play, have an opportunity of seeing what has been advanced upon this head.

'But even though the poet should, upon any occasion, be suspected of not having fully comprehended his own scheme, yet if the arrangement of the several parts of the fable can be so cleared up to the reader's apprehension, that a connected series of circumstances, not incompatible with each other, can be made apparent, no inconsiderable service, it is presumed, is done for him, since it may be affirmed that, in this species of composition, not the brightest local beauties, neither the most affecting strokes of passion, the wisest maxims of morality, nor the justest and most animated descriptions, whether derived from the productions of nature or of art, can avoid having their effect weakened, their dignity diminished, and their splendour obscured, whenever they are no longer considered in their subordinate relation to one coherent system, some rationally adjusted plan.

'This purpose the reader will find here pursued with no little earnestness and solicitude; but, in order to obtain so desirable an end, something more has been hazarded, than, from what has been expressed, is yet apparent; namely, a transposition of the scenes, in a few places, from that order in which they have been handed down by successive editions: this will, doubtless be thought by many a hardy innovation, but if it be considered in what a disorderly and neglected state this author's pieces are reported to have been left by him, and how little certainty there is that the scenes have hitherto preserved their original arrangement, the presumption with which this attempt is chargeable, will admit of much extenuation, and it were, at least, to be wished that no privilege of alteration more injurious to Shakspeare, had ever been assumed by any of his editors.

'If it should happen to be demanded why these two plays, in particular, have been selected as the subject of such an experiment, the answer is, that as, in the first place, they have generally been judged inferior to few others in poetical excellence and beauty, they likewise appeared, in an eminent degree, to stand in need of that kind of assistance which it has been endeavoured to administer. Whether the scheme is to be any farther pursued will depend upon the

the reception which the portion of it now exhibited shall be found to deserve.

The edition is certainly neat and accurate, and the notes well selected; but our limits will not permit us to enlarge on a ground so often trodden. We shall content ourselves with observing that, besides numerous annotations, the play of Lear, which constitutes the first volume, is accompanied with the following illustrations:

List of early Editions, and of Alterations.

Plan of the old and new Distribution of the Scenes.

A Sketch of the Play, by Jennens.

All these are prefixed. At the end appear:

Extracts from the Adventurer and the Gray's Inn Journal, concerning this Tragedy.

History of Lear, from Thompson's Translation of Geoffrey of Monmouth.

Story of Lear, from Spenser's Fairy Queen.

A Story from Sidney's Arcadia, on which the Underplot of Gloster and Edgar is founded.

Ballad of King Lear.

Extract from the old Play of Lear.

Richardson's Essay on Lear's Character.

Additional Notes from Malone's Edition, 1790.

Cymbeline is attended by the subsequent Pieces:

Editions and Alterations.

Old and new Distribution of the Scenes.

At the end:

Extract from 'Westward for Smelts.'

The Ninth Story of the Second Day of Boccaccio's Decamerone.

Richardson's Essay on the Character of Imogen.

Music for Collins' Song on the supposed Death of Fidele.

Music of 'Hark the Lark,' introduced in the second Act.

Additional Notes, from Malone's Edition of 1790.

To those who wish to have editions of favourite plays of Shakspeare, with complete illustrations, the present work must be highly interesting.

*The Confessions of James Baptiste Couteau, Citizen of France, written by Himself: and translated from the Original French, by Robert Jephson, Esq. Illustrated with Nine Engravings. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Debrett. 1794.*

IF it is unnecessary, as Shakspeare has informed us, 'to gild refined gold, or to throw a perfume on the violet,' it may be thought equally superfluous to blacken massacre, and to caricature



ture Marat. This, however, is what the author of these Confessions has thought proper to do. They are entitled *Confessions*, with a reference to those of Rousseau, to whose principles he pretends France is indebted for all the misfortunes she has lately suffered. Couteau, the hero of the piece, is represented as a monster of iniquity, the son of a fish-woman, who after passing through every scene of low depravity, and being confined in the Salpêtrière and the galleys, becomes a favourite of the duke of Orleans, a member of the convention, and a distinguished actor in various scenes of the French revolution. The professed design is to throw an odium upon the French, and he seems to have raked up every tale that credulity has believed, and every lie that slander has invented to serve the purpose of his publication. With a character of his own creation, an author has undoubtedly a right to take any liberty he pleases; but when he chuses to introduce real persons and historical events, it is no longer allowable to indulge in fiction. It is, therefore, highly unjustifiable, to say the least, to exhibit Marat and Robespierre confined for crimes in the Salpêtrière, or to relate anecdotes of Paine and of the duke of Orleans, under the licence of a fictitious work. The author answers for nothing, brings no proofs, cites no authorities, but he tells you in his Preface, *all his difficulty was to invent up to the real atrocities of the nation from which he has selected his principal characters.* Why then invent at all? Why not trust our feelings to the historical relation of facts? We know the duke of Orleans, for instance, was a very bad man; but no one has a right to *invent* of the worst man such an anecdote as the following:

‘ We were standing together at an open window which looks into the street, when Zara, a pretty little she-spaniel big with puppies, left her mat in the corner of the chamber, and came towards his highness crouching, wagging her tail, licking his feet, and offering him her little affectionate caresses. He wore white stockings; and whether it was that Zara put up her paws on his white stockings, or whether it was that he has an aversion to dogs, I know not, but he took her by the neck, and, extending his arm from the window, let the little mother drop on the iron spikes of the railing, where she was impaled immediately.

‘ While she was writhing and howling in her anguish, the first prince of the blood looked at her with great satisfaction, snapping his fingers, and crying out, in a fondling tone of voice, from the window, “ Come here, little Zara! What are you doing there, you gipsy! Come to me, come to your master, hussy!” and so on, in that sort of coaxing tone which we use to little dogs when we want to trifle with them.’

With

With regard to the execution of this work, it is not without a vein of humour, though by no means of the purest kind. A strain of ironical gravity is assumed through the whole. The author has made an excursion to Dublin, in order to give a share of his abuse to the society of united Irishmen; and there are some lively strokes in the relation of his adventures there. His feelings on entering Dublin are thus described :

‘ The appearance of the mob, who swarm on the quays and block up the passages to the city, delighted me greatly. Covered with rags and dirt, without breeches, shirts, or shoes, full of animal spirits, and the spirit of whiskey, “ Aye! aye!” says I, “ here is the true stuff for reformers! What a felicity must it be to live under a constitution of their modelling!”

‘ On advancing further into the city, and seeing every thing so different, my spirits sunk in proportion. Appearances were changed entirely: large streets, shops well furnished with all sorts of commodities, creditable houses, an excellent foot-way, public buildings (churches excepted) all magnificent, and handsome carriages rolling along, filled with modest and most beautiful ladies. Alas! thought I, this does not look like the work of my reformers; the gentry, I fear, have got the best end of the staff in this capital; but, with the help of the devil let us never despair of any thing.’

These volumes are ornamented with engravings, but very paltry ones. Though the title-page tells us they are translated from the French, we do not suppose they have ever appeared in any other than their present form; except that here and there a particular passage betrays its origin. The princess of Lambelle is said to have been struck down by a *coal-porter*, which we apprehend is meant as a translation of *col-porteur*, but *col-porteur* signifies a hawker, particularly of newspapers.

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*A Treatise upon Gravel and upon Gout, in which their Sources and Connection are ascertained; with an Examination of Dr. Austin's Theory of Stone, and other critical Remarks. A Dissertation on the Bile, and its Concretions, and an Enquiry into the Operation of Solvents. By Murray Forbes, Member of the Surgeons' Company. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell. 1793.*

THIS work has already obtained, in various forms, a large share of our attention. It first appeared in the year 1786, and the author's opinion then was, that calculous depositions were calcareous. We reprehended this system in our review of it in the LXII<sup>d</sup> volume of our Journal, and, in the next edition, it was wholly changed: the calculous matter was then an acid. In our account of this second edition, volume



LXIVth, we excited a little displeasure by assuming the merit of having corrected his view, and suggested the true nature of the calculous acid. It occasioned a longer correspondence than we are usually able to keep up in different Numbers of our LXIVth and LXVth volumes, and we parted on friendly terms, each seemingly preserving their former opinion. Mr. Forbes, in that correspondence, spoke with such confidence of his being able to prove the existence of the acid, that, in our examination of works on this subject, we have particularly attended to it, and more than once endeavoured to call him again into the field, attended with his proofs. He now comes, but with little addition to what he had formerly advanced. Since the publication of his second edition, various experiments have been published, to show that, in calculi and in urinary concretions, an acid probably existed; but it cannot be universally detected; and, when found, its nature appears still uncertain. It rests under the title of the lithific acid; but we have not yet met with sufficient evidence to prove, that our first opinion of its being phosphoric is without foundation. Perhaps the following passage relates to our opinion; though we must add, that the author has not given the slightest proof, that the calculus is not an acid combined with mucilage;—in other words, an oxyd. If he has any other ideas, to be conveyed with the strange unchemical term '*wrapped up*,' we could have wished that he had explained them:

'Many have been inclined to consider the calculus as a particular condition of phosphoric acid, but there has not been adduced any satisfactory experiment that can warrant the suspicion. Phosphorus and its acid are indeed matters of a singular kind, which appear to enter universally into the composition of animal substances, and are known to admit of variety of modifications, of which it is not impossible that the acid of concretions might be one; but we are unacquainted with any solid grounds from which correspondence can be inferred. Every trial to which it has been put, tends to evince the peculiarity and distinction of this matter as a separate acid; and such it ought to be regarded, till actual connexion has been ascertained. We had named it, the *concreting acid*, or *acid of calculi*; but Greek derivations are in fashion, and now it is commonly known by the term of *lithic*, or *lithific acid*. It is a concrete salt with acid properties peculiar to itself, and in a state that may generally be considered as a condition of tolerable purity. It is not, as some have supposed, a small quantity of an acid wrapt up in a large portion of mucilaginous matter; but a concretion is a body with unity of properties depending upon a particular arrangement of elements, that pervades almost every particle of the mass. The quantity of animal matter, that is only mechanically blended,

without having assumed such arrangement, may not always be the same, but is seldom considerable. It is complex with respect to composition; yet, as an acid, simple in its properties; and, in the circumstance of its acidity, ought to be brought to trial as a body of homogeneous qualities.'

We have observed, that Mr. Forbes does not come attended by his proofs and experiments, in the crowd, and with the decision we expected. The lithific acid is, it is said, precipitated by the muriatic, and the chrystals, or the sediment obtained by adding twenty drops of muriatic acid, or a small quantity of any other acid, is supposed to be the acid in question. This vague, this naked, chemical fact, is to overturn systems, 'throw light on what is obscure, and be adequate to a complete explanation of the concreting process.' — But will the chemical reader believe that the remaining urine has never been examined? that it has not been shown whether this sediment is a pure acid, or a super-acidulated terreous salt? or that it may not be such a salt formed of the acid used?

Again: we shall leave the argument for the consideration of the chemical reader, without a comment:

'Acidity in calculous urine is manifest to experiment; and one of the easiest by which it may in general be demonstrated, is exposure to a boiling heat. It will not become turbid by a deposition of animal earth when the fixed air has been expelled. There is present, for the solution of that earth, a sufficiency of acid not readily volatile in heat. The balance is not so exact that the expulsion of a little acid vapour gives preponderancy to the earth. Acids of a more fixed description are redundant, and the fluid retains its transparency in the greatest heat it can assume. This surely is not an equivocal fact. It presents very strong testimony of the state of the urine when gravel takes place, and points with decision to the source of that disease.'

The third section relates to the theory of Dr. Austin, which, we have formerly said, we think untenable. Our author throws no new light on the subject.

In the section on the cause of gout, Mr. Forbes has not added any thing important. The acid of the stomach separates, he supposes, the lithific acid, which is deposited on the vessels of the ligaments, and again dissipated by inflammation. The fact, however, is, that gouty concretions are an earthy salt, and the acid of that salt, certainly, the phosphoric. The acid thrown out at the termination of the fit in the urine, is also the phosphoric. It should then be inquired, whether, admitting the data, the laws of affinity will allow of the conclusion? a chemist will at once reply in the negative; and the



proofs of acidity, existing in diseased stomachs, detailed afterwards at a considerable length, might have been shortened, if it had been found that acid, as such, could not have produced the expected effects.

The section on the bile and its concretions, are now, we believe, first added. The bile, our author contends, is a real soap, containing an alkali, which serves for the combination of the resinous substance. So far, he is correct; but he ought to have known, that the effects of acids, in precipitating the resinous substance of the bile, was explained three-and-twenty years since, by Dr. Maclurg. The use of the bile, in his opinion, consists in its antacid properties, its demulcent, and its stimulant powers; but, if the alkali is destroyed, the resin concretes, and the varied train of dyspeptic symptoms ensue. It is necessary, therefore, to bring the acid to the liver; and for this purpose, our author supposes, that a superabundant acid may exist in the blood, or that it may be taken up by the absorbents, and carried to the vena portarum. He adduces many arguments to show, that the mesenteric veins absorb. This is, indeed, doubtful; but it is necessary still to discover, whether, if acid is found below the duodenum, if the mesenteric veins *do* absorb, the acid is not changed in the function of secretion. The whole of this subject is yet so obscure, that no reflection can fall on our author, if he is totally mistaken.

On the subject of prevention and cure, Mr. Forbes speaks with respect of *sarsaparilla* as assisting the freedom of secretion, of antimonials and mercurials as operating on the secretory organs, and of neutral salts, as possessing an alkaline basis, without inquiring how the acid is to be separated by 'ministers so weak' as 'either the phosphoric or lithifac acid.' Milk, our author thinks, an antacid; and tells us, that 'entirely unfounded are the notions, that have been entertained of alkalis causing a dissolved state of the fluids.'—In both he is mistaken in point of fact. The coagulation of milk does not necessarily require an acid; when effected by an acid, the acidity is not even weakened; and the continuance of an alkaline course has been followed by a dissolved state of the fluids, more certainly by dyspeptic symptoms, and a depraved habit. Our author's favourite solvent is the fossil alkali. Animal earth, he ought to have known, is already neutral: it is, however, recommended 'as a valuable absorbent,' though, in the same paragraph, it is allowed, 'that an acid, when saturated with it, does not appear to be deprived of its acidity. Some contention with authors, which Mr. Forbes thinks have adopted his ideas without sufficient acknowledgment, follows.

It remains for us to offer *our* acknowledgements: it is to

make the amende honorable by confession, and repentance for our having formerly attended so much to our author. His pretensions are wholly unfounded, his chemical knowledge inconsiderable, and his boasted improvements trifling. As the present work is the result of his more matured enquiries, we can truly add, that it deserves little attention.

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*Literary and Critical Remarks on sundry eminent Divines and Philosophers of the last and present Age; particularly Sir Walter Raleigh, Cudworth, Hobbes, Locke, Newton, Bolingbroke, Shaftsbury, Bishop Butler, Dr. Blair, Dr. Gregory, Bishop Porteus, Dr. Johnson, Bishop Hurd, Mrs. M. Graham, Dr. Priestley, &c. &c. combining Observations on Religion and Government, the French Revolution, &c. With an Appendix, containing a short Dissertation on the Existence, Nature, and Extent of the prophetic Powers of the Human Mind, with Examples of several eminent Prophecies of what is now acting, and soon to be fulfilled upon the great Theatre of Europe: particularly those of Bishop Newton, Baron Swedenbourg, Daniel Defoe, Dr. Priestley, Dr. Goldsmith, Dr. Smollett, &c. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Crosby. 1794.*

THESE Literary and Critical Remarks are evidently gleanings from the common-place book of a reading man. They are of a very miscellaneous, and even desultory nature; but they are frequently judicious, and generally entertaining. The following remarks on the Trinity, evince that the author is no contemptible scholar:

‘The modern champions of Socinianism; or, as they term their faith, of Unitarianism; plume themselves in affirming, that the Trinity is Platonic and Pagan. But what then? Why, the assumption turns against themselves. Because Heathens were right, must we go wrong? For is it not supposable, that the Pagans inherited the notion from tradition, perhaps revealed, as did the Christians from them? It is remarkable, that Julian the apostate represents Esculapius as a God incarnate, and as extending a salutary influence, somewhat like that of the Holy Spirit, throughout the earth. It was the opinion of Plato and others, that souls wandered in different bodies three thousand years, and that the soul consists of three component bodies. So some may imagine, that the Heathen fables, of gods residing on earth, might have some kind of foundation. And a presumption for this way of thinking is, the improbability and almost impossibility of the entrance of some prevalent notions into the minds of men, without revelation, but which revelation may have afterwards been corrupted with wild sophistications and error, as the doctrine of the Trinity into polytheism, deifications, demigods, and the



the like; till it at length resembled a garment patched, till none of the original remained. And thus all superstitions may perhaps be deduced from perversions of the Bible obtaining more and more. Truth was before error, and not error before truth. That things now present before our eyes are traceable up to the Bible, seemed evident to sir Walter Raleigh; and the reader will find many curious things in Hody's *Resurrection*, tending to confirm the connections of Scripture, fable, and history. Among other things, sir Walter makes it clear that the Jews believed the transmigration of souls as they did a resurrection; proofs of wandering correspondences that may one day unite in conviction. In regard to the *triumph* essence of the spiritual Godhead, it seems not necessarily, however, connected with the investment of one of the persons with human nature.

‘Many Theologists, among a variety of illations that the Trinity was inculcated in the Old Testament as well as in the New, aver that the word *Jehovah*, like *Elohim*, grammatically contained a complex meaning, and that the Jews had some extraordinary idea of its import; inasmuch, that whilst they reprobated Jesus Christ, they, agitated with frenzy, gave out that he stole the name of *Jehovah* out of their temple, with which as a charm he worked miracles. Among many passages in the Old Testament, a Theologist cites the eighteenth chapter of Genesis, certainly a very remarkable one, in proof of the Trinity; which, dashed as it seems with extravagance, may, perhaps, be construed into an attribution of somewhat more than human to the offspring of Sarah. In the first verse it is said that the Lord appeared unto Abraham; in the second, that Abraham lifted up his eyes and looked, and lo, three men stood by him. Now it cannot be denied that this presence of three persons might in some way, according to the unsearchable profundity of mystery, signify the three-fold nature of the Deity; and their at length eating like real men, may be construed into a symbol of the incarnation.’

Of the sermons which are criticised, those of bishop Porteus and Dr. Gregory appear to be the principal favourites with our author.—Of the *Thoughts on the Composition and Delivery of a Sermon*, by Dr. Gregory, he observes:

‘Our author has certainly foiled both Garrick and Johnson. And these *Thoughts* are very valuable, and the most instructive of any, I believe, on the subject. They include both the use of Swift's *Letter to a young Clergyman*, and to *Lord Oxford*; and have resemblance to the *Elements of Criticism*, with indeed the advantage of being concise and perspicuous: for valuable as are the *Elements*, they are rather too particular and prolix, if not sometimes confused and erroneous.’

And, on the discourses of the same author,

‘These truly practical discourses are a good example to the rules laid down in the instructive introductory preface; and possess a discrimination, clearness, and integrity, that come home both to men’s heads and hearts, with which the author seems peculiarly acquainted.’

The following remarks on the bishop of London’s sermon on the slave-trade do honour to the *heart* of our author:

‘It would be a criminal omission to forbear, on the perusal of this excellent discourse on the *slave-trade*, congratulating Britain, and, in some degree, *humanity*, on an administration, and the most able members of an opposition, concurring in an endeavour to emancipate their fellow creatures from intolerable slavery. The mention of the names of individual patriots, ministerial and antiministerial, who promote so blessed an intention, would be superfluous. But, O Heavens! that there should be a legislative party of men; that there should be persons who would be deemed patriots and Christians, who dare to look up to the throne of Grace, that could wish, yea totally to blast it in every respect. To such the text of the fifteenth sermon, *Whosoever shall keep the whole law, and yet offend in one point (such a heinous point) he is guilty of all*, whatever was his precise meaning, is deplorably indeed applicable.

‘At all events, Britons, among whom humanity and generosity have been pronounced to abide, will have an opportunity of testifying whether they deserve the appellation, by marking those who, through vile self-interest, or other sinister views, become the advocates of the most infamous traffic ever heard of, whether in the oppressive treatment of fellow beings, when enslaved, or the barbarity of maintaining civil wars in Africa, and keeping the sword for ever unsheathed.

‘Among the sceptical allegations in favour of a practice outraging the dictates of religion, morality, and of nature, is the danger that would accrue to the white tyrants from its abolition. In answer to which, I would flatly say, that *Lex est æquior nulla, quam necesse artifices arte perire sua*; and that some things are so flagrant, that recoiling Nature abhors them, and they ought, there being no rule without exception, to be reprobated without examination, as a baneful tree ought to be extirpated, though some useful plants be torn up with it; that politicians should, previously to all other considerations, pursue humanity, be men, and not literally incur the taunt, *O cives! cives! querenda pecunia primum est! humanitas post nummos*. But, *salva humanitate*, humanity secured, then let them be statesmen, and as sagacious as they please. Of all laws, retaliation is that for which nature and common sense plead most irresistibly; and I confess that it would not destroy my peace, to hear of that law being put in execution, on men fattening on the merciless oppressions of their fellow creatures, reduced from the condition of human



human beings to that of brutes, that their tyrants, brutes of a different class, and their brother abettors, may soothe their pride with the contrast between themselves and others of their species; so much it excites my indignation to hear defended a system of remediless vassalage entailed on helpless victims, that Europeans may not run the least hazard of being fully furnished with rum, an intoxicating liquor, or the revenues of their states be in any manner risked. The uncertainty of human affairs, through which good endeavours alone are in the power of man, teaches even policy, that prominent justice should be always embraced. And let it not be forgotten, that an over-ruling providence will eventually prevail, and confer a blessing on a policy so generous as the abolishment of slavery; a providence conspicuous in its aggrandisement of Britain; a nation that, with all her faults, was wont to fight the battles of freedom; and at this time erects her head above the abyss of debt, into which, for the most part, she has been thereby plunged. Cold prudence should sometimes yield to worthy adventure; and it would be but a perseverance in the tenor of her conduct, were it termed knight-errantry, or what not, if she were not only to abolish the nefarious traffic of her own subjects, but, laying faction aside, and making voluntary contributions, to guard the coasts of Africa from the depredations of other nations, fearless of the consequences of noble endeavours that would not fail to draw down the blessing of Heaven, which now in a manner avenges the Africans by the reprisals of their northern states, termed barbarians, whilst there are no worse barbarians on earth than polished systematic plunderers. Weak and wretched is the argument, that because the Africans have some internal wars, and are thievish, Christians should promote those wars, and, under pretence of rescuing them from the rage of the victors, condemn them to a lingering death in a foreign climate; and an accursed one, that atrocious tyranny should be pleaded as usage. *Fiat justitia, ruat cælum*, was a favourite adage of lord Mansfield, whose determination that slavery was unknown to the climate of Britain, was an happy auspice of its demolition in her dependencies.

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*The History of Spain, from the Establishment of the Colony of Gades by the Phœnicians, to the Death of Ferdinand, surnamed the Sage. (Concluded from Vol VIII. New Arr. p. 253.)*

THE second volume of the present history is confessedly compiled from the histories of Robertson and Watson. It is, however, well digested and connected. The third volume is collected from a variety of authors, and from this we shall select a specimen or two.

The following paragraphs contain some just observations on the character of the celebrated cardinal Fleury:

‘ A war thus feebly and ingloriously conducted on both sides, wanted to extinguish it only the voice of a mediator. Such a one arose in cardinal Fleury; the short administration of the duke of Bourbon, Condé, had expired with sending back the Infanta, and providing for his sovereign a new alliance in the daughter of Stanislaus, who had been raised to the throne of Poland by the arms of Charles the Twelfth of Sweden, but who had shared the vicissitudes which marked the singular life of that royal adventurer, and on the defeat of Pultowa had been reduced to abdicate his transient royalty. His daughter Mary was chosen to partake the throne of the king of France; and her elevation was soon attended by the disgrace of the duke of Bourbon. He was succeeded as minister by cardinal Fleury, who, in the situation of bishop of Frejus, had practised that economy which he afterwards displayed in a more eminent condition; the solicitations of mareschal Villeroy prevailed on the late king to appoint him by his will preceptor to his grandson; and Fleury with reluctance consented to expose his virtuous manners to the contagion of a court: but though he unwillingly accepted the envied appointment, he discharged it with unimpeached fidelity and diligence; the esteem of the public was mingled with the regard of the prince; the indignation which Spain still cherished against the duke of Bourbon, concurred to facilitate his promotion; and though Fleury rejected the title, he accepted the authority of minister.

‘ It was at the age of seventy-three that Fleury devoted the remains of a life that had hitherto challenged universal esteem, to the ungrateful toils which attend power; and at a period when the most sanguine seek for repose, he entered the lists of fame. His disposition was naturally pacific; and it was confirmed by his having been a spectator, during the close of the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth, of the dreadful calamities that accompany war. His first efforts were directed to restore the tranquillity of Europe; and Philip, disgusted with his unsuccessful attempt on Gibraltar, readily consented to accept his mediation. It was agreed between the courts of Madrid and London, that the obnoxious charter of the Ostend East India company should be suspended for seven years; that the stipulations in the quadruple alliance, and particularly those relative to the succession of Don Carlos to the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany, should be fulfilled; and that all differences should be adjusted by a congress: this congress was held at Soissons, and was soon followed by the treaty of Seville, that apparently removed all grounds of dispute.’

The following is a pleasing picture of the state of Spain during the latter years of Ferdinand VI.

‘ From the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the reign of Ferdinand is distinguished by the rare advantage of possessing few materials for the historian. To heal the wounds which a century of almost uninterrupted



interrupted warfare had inflicted, and to deliver his wearied subjects from the weight of accumulated imposts, were the objects of his salutary labours. Though death deprived him of the congenial counsels of Don Joseph de Carvajal, his diligence was not suffered to abate, and his toils were recompensed by the tranquil prosperity of his people. By his regulations concerning the finances, the more intolerable grievances were mitigated, if not removed; several of the more odious branches of the customs and the excise were abolished; a more liberal policy was introduced; and the husbandman might, with confidence, expect to reap the harvest that he had sown.

‘ From these occupations Ferdinand was not to be allured by the splendid promises and ambitious projects of the court of Versailles. He firmly rejected the proposals for a family compact, which have since been acceded to, and have been found so injurious to the interests of Spain: when solicited to join in the war which Lewis was determined to resume against England, he coldly replied, that he was better calculated to act as a mediator than as an ally. He dismissed from his confidence the marquis of Encenada, who from a simple banker of Cadiz, had been raised to the first posts in the kingdom, and who was zealously attached to an union with France: though he continued to treat Elizabeth with the respect that was due to the widow of his father, he allowed not her turbulence to interrupt the happiness of his people; and in the promotion of general Wall, whose pacific views were similar to his own, to the office of prime minister, he extinguished the jealousy of Great Britain, and the hopes of France.

‘ It is rarely, however, that mankind are willing to ascribe the pacific conduct of a prince to the pure source of a gentle and feeling heart. In our admiration of the fallacious and destructive lustre which surrounds the brows of a conqueror, we are apt to deride or suspect the milder virtues; a disposition prone to censure, is gratified by degrading humanity into weakness; and the neutral system of Ferdinand has been imputed to his consort, a princess of Portugal, jealous of the power and projects of the court of Versailles. Those politicians who affect to discern intrigue in the most simple and consistent actions, have asserted that the gold of England was advantageously employed on Farinelli, an Italian singer, who possessed an high degree of credit and favour with the queen. Yet Farinelli was the old and constant friend of Encenada, and strenuously opposed, and openly lamented his dismissal from office. It is more just, as well as more natural, to allow the sole merit of these peaceful counsels to Ferdinand himself; who with the sceptre had in some measure succeeded to the disposition of Philip the Fifth; and who, though he suffered not his hereditary melancholy to estrange him from the duties of his station, was equally averse with his father to the tumultuous horrors of war.

‘ Though the inclinations of the monarch and his new minister, combined

combined to preserve the tranquillity of Spain, while Germany was deluged with blood, and the hostile banners of France and England were displayed in the east and west, amidst his peaceful duties, Ferdinand was obliged to confess with a sigh, how far the labour exceeded his strength, and how vain had proved his generous wish to restore and invigorate the Spanish empire. In correcting partial abuses, and in reforming the degeneracy of a court, his own example might give weight and energy to his laws; but a few years were not sufficient to remedy the evils that, in two centuries, had sprung from superstition and avarice; and the repeated proscription of the Moors, and the emigration of the youthful and the ardent to share the spoils of Peru and Mexico, had abandoned to solitude and desolation the most fertile districts of the kingdom. If we may believe the report of a modern writer, who has filled a respectable situation in the government of the country he treats of, about the middle of the present century, eighteen thousand square leagues of the richest land of Spain were left uncultivated, and two millions of her people languished in misery, destitute of employment. From this prostrate condition, no exertions of an individual could raise the drooping genius of Castile; yet the efforts of Ferdinand were honourable to himself, and beneficial to his country: and when, at the end of thirteen years, his premature death without issue, devolved his crown on the head of his brother, the king of the Two Sicilies, we may learn from the subsequent murmurs which arraigned the negligence and profusion of his successor, that he left a marine of fifty ships of war, and that the treasury, which he found empty on his accession, contained at his decease the sum of near three millions, the fruits of a severe but laudable œconomy.

Though we cannot give the praise of originality to this publication; yet we must allow that it is a useful and pleasing compilation. It contains all the leading facts of a history but little known, and little studied; and these are conveyed in language that never fatigues by obscurity, nor offends the ear by harshness or vulgarity.

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*Fontainville Forest, a Play, in Five Acts, (founded on the Romance of the Forest,) as performed at the Theatre Royal Covent Garden. By James Boaden, of the Honourable Society of the Middle Temple. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hookham and Carpenter. 1794.*

THE Romance of the Forest received our warm commendations: it united interest with entertainment; kept the mind in suspense with art, and gratified it without the violation of probability. The rules of the epopœe were well observed, though the fair authoress knew not, probably, of their exist-



existence; but, as we had lately occasion to remark, doctrines founded in reason and common sense require no other qualifications to discover or follow them. It is singular, however, that our author, with a performance so truly dramatic before his eye, should have failed in this respect; and that the novel should be more close to the laws of the epopée, than the play. Such, however, is the fact; and, perhaps, Mrs. Radcliffe may also complain, that he has not properly followed the novel in the character of Lamotte.—But to be more particular.

The introduction of Adeline is not unhappy; though, in this respect, the lone heath; the absence of Lamotte, seeking his way in a pathless desert; the uncertainty of his wife, respecting his return, render the circumstance more interesting.—Again: Suspense in the novel, is artfully kept up, by our ignorance of the cause of Lamotte's distress: in the play, we know that he goes out to rob, that his motives are as mean, as the attempt was infamous. It is, *here*, too, a fixed design, while, *there*, the guilt is alleviated by its being a sudden suggestion. The same cause weakens the effect in another place. The whole of the connection of Lamotte with the marquis is foreseen; the discovery of the marquis's guilt is necessarily anticipated; and much of the pleasure, both of the reader and spectator, is lost.

But let us turn to a more pleasing part of our task. We have said the introduction of Adeline is not unhappy, and, perhaps, the circumstances of the novel, which relate to her first appearance, could not have been, with propriety, introduced on the stage. The first scene fixes the attention strongly: the language is suitable to the situation and the characters.

*Act I. Scene.—A Gothic Hall of an Abbey, the whole much dilapidated.*

*Enter Madame Lamotte, followed by Peter.*

*Madame.* Seek not to fill me with these terrors, Peter;

Here are no signs of any late inhabitants,  
The fugitive fears nothing but discovery.  
While we are safe from all pursuit, no vain  
Or superstitious fancies shall disturb me.

*Peter.* This is a horrid place, I scarce dare crawl  
Through its low grates and narrow passages:  
And the wind's gust that whistles in the turrets,  
Is as the groan of some one near his end.  
Heaven send my Master back! On my old knees  
I begg'd him not explore that dismal wood;  
He comforted me then, but scorn'd my fears.

*Madame* Woud'st have us perish here for want? Have comfort,  
Nor let thy Mistress teach thee fortitude.

*Peter,*

\* *Peter.* Nay, dearest Madam, do not think your old,  
But faithful servant, backward to defend you!  
From an attack but mortal, against odds  
Chearful I'd risk this crazy tenement;  
But here my fear is not of human harm.

\* *Madame.* May there no greater danger press than your's;  
The place will then yield us the needful shelter,  
Your master will be safe, and I be happy.  
But night is far advanc'd—his absence pains me.

\* *Peter.* He went at dusk; by the same token then  
The owl shriek'd from the porch—He started back;  
But recollected, smote his forehead, and advanc'd;  
He struck into the left hand dingle soon:  
I clos'd the Abbey gate, which grated sadly.

\* *Madame.* 'Hark! his signal!'

If our author fails in too precipitately showing the connection of the Marquis with Lamotte, he makes some amends in the circumstance of their meeting: it is dramatic and interesting, and the distress of Lamotte is well heightened. The scene of the deserted apartment, is, on the whole, well managed, though we doubt whether the effect is not weakened by its being first introduced at the end of the second act.

\* *Scene—changes to a melancholy Apartment. The Windows beyond reach, and grated. — An old Canopy in the Distance, with a torn Set of Hanging-Tapestry.*

\* *Enter Adeline.*

\* *Adeline.* I must be cautious, lest the sudden blast  
Extinguish my faint guide. "I'll place the lamp  
Behind this sheltering bulk."—What's this I tread on?  
A dagger, all corroded by the rust!  
Prophetic soul! Yes, murder has been busy!  
A chilly faintness creeps across my heart,  
And checks the blood that strives in vain to follow.

[*Pause, sits down.*

I feel recover'd, and new strength is giv'n me!  
'Tis destiny compels.—On to my task.  
Yon tatter'd ruin yawns, to tempt enquiry.

[*Touches it, all falls down.*

What scroll thus meets me in the falling lumber?  
Let me examine it: blurr'd all by damps;  
Mouldy, in parts illegible. I'll hence now:  
The waning light warns me to gain my chamber.  
Inspire me, great Avenger! Angels guard me. [Exit.]

It is properly continued, at the end of the third act, and we hail the phantom with well-boding hopes. It is 'an honest



nest spirit,' and not too intrusive. Since Shakspeare trod the hallowed ground, we have not seen a more successful attempt.

' *Scene—The secret Apartment, gloomy and rude, only clear'd of the Lumber formerly there.*

' *Adeline alone.*

' *Adeline.* At last I am alone! And now may venture  
To look at the contents of this old manuscript.  
A general horror creeps thro' all my limbs,  
And almost stifles curiosity. (*Reads.*)  
"The wretched Philip, marquis of Montault,  
Bequeaths his sorrows to avenging time.  
O you, whate'er ye are of human kind,  
To whom this sad relation of my woes  
Shall come, afford your pity to a being,  
Shut from the light of day, and doom'd to perish."  
O Heav'n, the dagger! Yes, my fears were founded.  
"They seiz'd me as I reach'd the neighbour wood,  
Bound and then brought me here; at once I knew  
The place, the accurs'd design, and their employer,  
Yet, O my brother, I had never wrong'd you."  
His brother! What, yon marquis?

' *Phantom.* Even he. (*heard within the chamber.*)

' *Adeline.* Hark! Sure I heard a voice! No, 'tis the thunder  
That rolls its murmurs thro' this yawning pile.  
"They told me I should not survive three days,  
And bade me choose, or poison, or the sword;  
O God, the horrors of each bitter moment!  
The ling'ring hours of day, the sleepless night!  
Eternal terrors in a span of life!"

Poor, wretched sufferer! Accept the tears  
Of one, like thee, pursued by fortune's frown,  
Yet less unhappy!

' *Phantom.* O, Adeline! (*faintly visible.*)

' *Adeline.* Ha! sure I'm call'd! No, all are now at rest.  
How powerful is fancy! I'll proceed.

"At length I can renew this narrative.

To leave no means untempted of escape,  
I climb'd these grated windows, but I fell  
Stunn'd and much bruise'd, insensate to the ground.  
The day allotted dawns! Ye boding terrors,  
I feel to-morrow I shall be as nothing!"

Great God of mercy! could there none be found  
To aid thee? Then he perish'd—

' *Phantom.* Perish'd here.

' *Adelaide.*

\* *Adeline.* My sense does not deceive me! awful sounds!

'Twas here he fell!

[*The Phantom here glides across the dark Part of the Chamber, Adeline shrieks, and falls back. The Scene closes upon her.*]

The catastrophe is conducted with skill, and it only fails, as the end and the means are so fully understood.—On the whole, the play is interesting: it might, perhaps, have been better; but we thank the author for what he has done. The language, our readers will see, is spirited, poetical, and energetic. It is seemingly intended to imitate Shakspeare, but it reaches Massinger only: this, however, is no common praise, for Massinger requires a fuller measure of fame than he has received. We cannot resist transcribing a short specimen of our author's powers in this respect.

\* *Act IV. Scene—The Hall (dark.)*

\* *Violent Thunder and Lightning, the Abbey rocks, and through the distant Windows one of the Turrets is seen to fall, struck by the Lightning.*

\* *Enter the Marquis, wild and dishevell'd.*

\* *Marquis.* Away! Pursue me not! Thou Phantom, hence!

For while thy form thus haunts me, all my powers

Are wither'd, as the parchment, by the flame,

And my joints frail as nerveless infancy. (*Lightning.*)

See, he unclasps his mangled breast, and points

The deadly dagger—O, in pity strike

Deep in my heart, and search thy expiation;

Have mercy, mercy! (*falls upon his knee.*) Gone! 'tis all illusion!

O no! If images like these are fanciful,

The griding rack gives no such real pain;

My eyes have almost crack'd their strings in wonder,

And my swollen heart so heaves within my breast,

As it would bare its secret to the day.

'Twas sleep that unawares surpriz'd me yonder,

And mem'ry lent imagination arms,

To probe my ulcerous spirit to the quick.

I'll tarry here no longer. Ho! Lamotte!

Awake! awake! The horrors of the night

Alone would banish slumber from the pillow

Of quiet innocence.'

In the characters, our author does not deviate from the novel.—We have said he has sullied that of Lamotte; and we wish, if other circumstances would have permitted, that he had rendered that of his son more interesting.

*Met-*



*Meteorological Observations and Essays. By John Dalton, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, at the New College, Manchester. 8vo. 4s. Richardson. 1793.*

THE atmosphere, with its various phenomena, has ever excited the curiosity of mankind, and, from the time of the discovery of the barometer, philosophers have made more accurate observations, and endeavoured to reduce the continual changes, which take place in it, to some general laws. Its weight is now clearly ascertained, the limits of its height remain doubtful; but the effects even of heat and moisture have been subjected to the rigour of mathematical investigation. Still, perhaps, a sufficient number of observations at different parts of the world is wanting, before a complete theory can be laid down, and we are indebted to every person who, after many years of experience and study, communicates the result of his inquiries to the public.

The writer of these Essays made his observations at Kendal; Mr. Crosshwaite was engaged in the same manner at Kewick; and from their mutual labours are given tables of the mean, highest, and lowest places of the barometer, for every month in the years 1788, 1789, 1790, 1791, 1792, the direction of the winds, the state of the thermometer, of the hygrometer, of rain-gauges, account of thunder-storms, first and last appearances of snow on the tops of mountains, and many miscellaneous remarks on these points, as occurred to the respective observers. The phenomena of the aurora borealis excited particularly their attention, and a list and character of them are given for seven years, from May 1786 to May 1793.

Prefixed to each set of tables is a short account of the instruments used, the barometer, thermometer, hygrometers, and rain gauges; but we were rather surprised at not finding, from such an accurate observer, an account of the improvements made by the late Mr. Six in thermometers, which might have been of great service in these inquiries. The description of the instruments, with the theory of them, drawn up clearly and concisely, and the tables, occupy the first part of this work: the latter is dedicated to inquiries on the constitution of the atmosphere, winds, evaporation, and other similar subjects; the phenomena of the aurora borealis are discussed more at large, and an adequate cause for them is found by the author in magnetism.

Instead of the usual mode of accounting for the constant winds within the tropics, by a current of air following the maximum of heat in the direction of the sun, from east to west, to restore the equilibrium, as suggested by Dr. Halley, the chief causes of all winds, both regular and irregular, are attributed

attributed to the inequality of heat in different climates and places, and the earth's rotation round its axis. The effects of the inequality of heat are a constant ascent of air over the torrid zone, which afterwards falls northward, and southward, and the colder air below has a continual impulse towards the equator. The other cause we shall give in the author's words:

‘The effects of the earth's rotation are as follow: the air over any part of the earth's surface, when apparently at rest or calm, will have the same rotary velocity as that part, or its velocity will be as the co-sine of the latitude; but if a quantity of air in the northern hemisphere, receive an impulse in the direction of the meridian, either northward or southward, its rotary velocity will be greater in the former case, and less in the latter, than that of the air into which it moves; consequently, if it move northward, it will have a greater velocity eastward than the air, or surface of the earth over which it moves, and will therefore become a SW. wind, or a wind between the south and west. And, *vice versa*, if it move southward, it becomes a NE. wind. Likewise in the southern hemisphere, it will appear the winds upon similar suppositions will be NW. and SE. respectively.

‘The trade-winds therefore may be explained thus: the two general masses of air proceeding from both hemispheres towards the equator, as they advance, are constantly deflected more and more towards the east, on account of the earth's rotation; that from the northern hemisphere, originally a north wind, is made to veer more and more towards the east, and that from the southern hemisphere, in like manner, is made to veer from the south towards the east; these two masses meeting about the equator, or in the torrid zone, their velocities north and south destroy each other, and they proceed afterwards with their common velocity from east to west round the torrid zone, excepting the irregularities produced by the continents. Indeed the equator is not the centre or place of concurrence, but the northern parallel of  $4^{\circ}$ ; because the centre of heat is about that place, the sun being longer on the north side of the equator than on the south side. Moreover, when the sun is near one of the tropics, the centre of heat upon the earth's surface is then nearer that tropic than usual, and therefore the winds about the tropic are more nearly east at that time, and those about the other tropic more nearly north and south.

‘Were the whole globe covered with water, or the variations of the earth's surface in heat regular and constant, so that the heat was the same every where over the same parallel of latitude, the winds would be regular also: as it is, however, we find the irregularities of heat, arising from the interspersion of sea and land, are such, that though all the parts of the atmosphere, in some sort, conspire to produce regular winds round the torrid zone, yet the effect of the situa-  
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tion of land is such, that striking irregularities are produced: witness, the monsoons, sea and land breezes, &c. which can be accounted for on no other principle than that of rarefaction; because the rotary velocity of different parallels in the torrid zone is nearly alike.

Evaporation, rain, hail, &c. are ingeniously accounted for, by supposing the aqueous vapour to exist always as a fluid sui generis, diffused among the rest of the aerial fluids. Heat and dry air produce evaporation; cold condenses the vapour into water. A table is given of the heat of water, when boiling, with different pressures upon its surface; whence it is inferred, that aqueous vapour, of the temperature of  $80^{\circ}$ , cannot bear a pressure equal to more than 1.03 inches of mercury on its surface, without condensation. The theory certainly deserves consideration; and similar experiments on water boiling under different pressures, or combined with air of different sorts and temperatures, may in a short time establish or confute an opinion, by which, however, the phenomena of rain, hail, or snow, are as easily accounted for, as by the generally received doctrine of a chemical solution and precipitation.

The author was led first to attribute the phenomenon of the aurora borealis to magnetism, by observing a very grand aurora in the autumn of 1792, the exactitude with which the needle pointed to the middle of the northern concentric arches, and a line drawn to the vertex of the dome being in the direction of the dipping-needle. The perturbation of the needle during the whole phenomenon confirmed his opinion, and repeated observations have enabled him to lay the basis of a theory, which deserves the attention of every one engaged in similar pursuits. Upon mathematical principles it is inferred, that the luminous beams are parallel to each other. They are cylindrical, magnetic, and parallel to the dipping-needle, at the places over which they appear. The height of the rainbow-like arches above the earth's surface is about 150 miles, and the distance of the beams from the earth's surface, nearly equal to their length. The beams are supposed to be of a ferruginous nature, and consequently there must be a fluid in the atmosphere, having the properties of magnetic steel. Their magnetism is weakened, destroyed or inverted, by the electric shocks they receive during an aurora; and from the alterations in this respect on each side of the magnetic meridian, proceeds the disturbance in the needle.

This Essay, as well as the others, is drawn up in a clear, and even elegant manner; and we cannot help remarking, that

C. R. N. ARR. (XI.) Aug. 1794.

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the reflections on the wisdom of Providence in various operations of nature, interspersed throughout these Essays, do particular honour to the writer's understanding, at a time, when, by perverted notions of philosophy, so many, in their admiration of second causes, seem to have lost sight entirely of the first mover of the universe. The subjects treated of are too numerous to be analysed in this work; what is old is placed in the best light, and there are many original thoughts, which prove that the writer has exerted himself with ardour in a favourite pursuit; and, however we may differ from him in some opinions, we leave the work, with a conviction, that every one engaged in similar researches will receive many useful hints, both from the theories of the author, and his mode of registering so great a variety of observations.

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*A Short and Plain Exposition of the Old Testament, with Devotional and Practical Reflections for the Use of Families. By the late Rev. Job Orton, S.T.P. Published from the Author's Manuscripts, by Robert Gentleman. Vol. VI. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1791.*

THIS volume concludes a work of considerable importance. The object of the truly respectable author was to concentrate the elucidations of preceding commentators, and occasionally improve them by such additions of his own as reiterated considerations of the scriptures might suggest. Of all expositions hitherto of the Old Testament, as a family book, we think this the best. But, alas! in how few families of the present day are books on such subjects perused! This, however, is not the only use to which it may be applied: young divines, and those whose circumstances preclude them from the purchase of larger works, will find their account in the acquisition of this.

It will be difficult to fix upon any one extract that can give an adequate notion of the undertaking at large; but as a single chapter will exhibit the manner of the author, we will subjoin one of the shortest:

#### ‘ DANIEL. CHAP. VIII.

*This chapter relates to the Persian and Grecian monarchies, as explained by the angel; it is not written in Chaldee, but in Hebrew, and this language is continued to the end of the book, as it chiefly concerns the Jews and their affairs.*

- 1 IN the third year of the reign of king Belshazzar a vision appeared unto me, [even unto] me Daniel, after that which appeared



2 peared to me at the first. And I saw in a vision, *while awake, not in a dream, as before*, and it came to pass, when I saw, that I [was] at Shushan [in] the palace, which [is] in the province of Elam; and I saw in a vision, and I was by the river of Ulai.

3 Then I lifted up mine eyes, and saw, and, behold, there stood before the river a ram which had [two] horns: and the [two] horns [were] high; but one [was] higher than the other, and the higher came up last; *an emblem of the kingdoms of the Medes and*

4 *Persians united.* I saw the ram pushing westward, and northward, and southward; *referring to the countries conquered by the Persian kings; so that no beasts, that is, no kingdom, might stand before him, neither [was there any] that could deliver out of his hand; but he did according to his will, and became great.*

5 And as I was considering, behold, an he goat came from the west on the face of the whole earth, and touched not the ground: and the goat [had] a notable horn between his eyes; *referring to the Grecian empire, especially under Alexander the Great, and the swiftness of his conquests; who in less than eight years over-*

6 *ran the greatest part of Asia.* And he came to the ram that had [two] horns, which I had seen standing before the river, and ran unto him in the fury of his power, *that is, attacked the Per-*

7 *sians.* And I saw him come close unto the ram, and he was moved with choler against him, and smote the ram, and brake his two horns: and there was no power in the ram to stand before him, but he cast him down to the ground, and stamped upon him: and there was none that could deliver the ram out of his hand. *The three expressions of smiting, casting down, and stamping upon, may refer to Alexander's three victories over Da-*

8 *rius, at Granicum, Issus, and Arbela.* Therefore the he goat waxed very great: and when he was strong the great horn was broken; *he died about the age of thirty-three, in the height of his glory: and for it came up four notable ones toward the four winds of heaven, the empire being then divided among his four*

9 *generals.* And out of one of them came forth a little horn, which waxed exceeding great, toward the south, and toward the east, and toward the pleasant [land;] *toward Egypt, Syria, and*

10 *Judea.* And it waxed great, [even] to the host of heaven: and it cast down [some] of the host, *that is, the Jewish people, who were in a peculiar manner the care of God, and of the stars, persons of dignity, priests, and nobles, to the ground, and stamped*

11 *upon them.* Yea, he magnified [himself] even to the prince of the host, *Christ was put to death by the Roman power prevailing in Judea, and by him the daily [sacrifice] was taken away, and the place of his sanctuary was cast down; Antiochus made it cease for a while, but the Romans took it away, and destroyed the*

12 *temple, which he only polluted.* And an host was given [him] against

against the daily [sacrifice] by reason of transgression, *the wickedness of the Jews at that time, was the reason of its being given up to the Romans, and it cast down the truth to the ground; and it practised, and prospered: referring to a breach of treaty which the Romans were guilty of, or to their persecuting Christians, and labouring to extirpate Christianity.*

13 ' Then I heard one faint, or angel, speaking, and another faint said unto that certain [saint] which spake, How long [shall be] the vision [concerning] the daily [sacrifice] *being taken away, and the transgression of desolation, to give both the sanctuary and the host to be trodden under foot? how long shall Judea be desolate, and the Jews dispersed? or, how far shall this*  
14 *vision extend?* And he said unto me, Unto two thousand and three hundred days, *that is, years; then shall the sanctuary be cleansed.*

15 ' And it came to pass, when I, [even] I Daniel, had seen the vision, and sought for the meaning, then, behold, there stood  
16 before me as the appearance of a man. And I heard a man's voice between [the banks of] Ulai, which called, and said, Ga-  
17 briel, make this [man] to understand the vision. So he came near where I stood: and when he came, I was afraid, and fell upon my face: but he said unto me, Understand, O son of man: for at the time of the end [shall be] the vision; *that is, Consider and mind, for the vision refers to the end of the Jewish*  
18 *state.* Now as he was speaking with me, I was in a deep sleep on my face toward the ground, *that is, as insensible of every thing but the present impression upon my mind, as if I had been asleep;*  
19 *but he touched me, and set me upright.* And he said, Behold, I will make thee know what shall be in the last end of the indignation: for at the time appointed the end [shall be;] *that is, the*  
20 *end of God's indignation against the Jews.* The ram which thou sawest having two horns [are] the kings of Media and Persia.  
21 And the rough goat [is] the king of Grecia: and the great horn that [is] between his eyes is the first king. Now that being broken, whereas four stood up for it, four kingdoms shall stand up out of the nation, but not in his power; *they shall neither be*  
23 *equal in power, nor extent of empire.* And in the latter time of their kingdom, *that is, of the Grecian kingdom, when their power began to decline, especially over Judea, by the growing power of the Romans, when the transgressors, or the transgressions of the Jews, are come to the full, a king of fierce countenance, and understanding dark sentences, that is, a kingdom of great policy, art, prudence, and valour, as the Romans were, shall stand up.*  
24 And his power shall be mighty, *he shall effect great things, but not by his own power; rather by fraud and under-hand dealing and the divine permission, than by force of arms: and he shall de-*  
stroy



stroy wonderfully, and shall prosper, and practise, and shall destroy the mighty and the holy people; *that is, the Jews, or rather, the Christians.* And through his policy also, *or treachery,* 25 *in not observing treaties,* he shall cause craft to prosper in his hand; and he shall magnify [himself] in his heart, and by peace shall destroy many; *taking opportunity in time of peace to make war, and oppose Christianity:* he shall also stand up against the Prince of princes; but he shall be broken without hand; *he shall crumble to pieces by degrees, and not be destroyed, as the former* 26 *empires were, by an extraordinary display of divine power.* And the vision of the evening and the morning which was told [is] true: wherefore shut thou up the vision, *that no offence be given to the Persians, nor premature perplexity to the Jews;* for it [shall] 27 *be] for many days.* And I Daniel fainted, and was sick [certain] days; *my spirit was weakened by these visions and the foresight of these troubles;* afterward I rose up, and did the king's business; and I was astonished at the vision, but none understood [it;] *the meaning was not then known, or, none perceived by my countenance that I was troubled.*

#### REFLECTIONS.

1. We are here taught the folly of ambition; which is remarkably apparent in the history of Alexander, referred to in v. 7. &c. He conquered the world, but died of a drunken surfeit in the prime of his days; his captains shared his conquests, and his vast empire was broken to pieces. With what pity and contempt may we think of the renowned heroes of antiquity! who were so active and unwearied; did so much mischief; and yet reaped such little benefit by it: but God was answering his own purposes by all.

2. It should be our desire and care to be well acquainted with the prophecies, and the mind of God in them. Daniel sought their meaning; considered and reflected on it. The angels inquired one of another about it. This shows us how worthy those things are of our study; and it justly reproves those who will take no pains to understand these parts of scripture, nor give themselves the trouble to attend to those expositions of them, which, after much labour and study, ministers are from time to time giving. If properly considered, they would be a great confirmation of our faith; would lead us to adore the omniscience of God; and convince us of his universal government and influence.

The portrait of Mr. Orton, prefixed to this volume, undoubtedly retains some resemblance; but far from a pleasant, or just one.

*A Chronological History of the European States, with their Discoveries and Settlements, from the Treaty of Nimeguen, in 1678, to the Close of the Year 1792. In which a particular Attention is paid to the Origin, Progress, and Termination of the Revolutions which have taken Place in different States. Also, Biographical Sketches of the Sovereigns who have reigned during that Period, and of those Persons who have been principally interested, as Statesmen, Warriors, Patriots, &c. in the Events and Transactions of it. Together with Tables which have a Reference to different Parts of the Work. By Charles Mayo, LL. B. Rector of Beching Stoke and Hewish, in the County of Wilts. Folio. 1l. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1792.*

**T**HIS Chronological History we have had occasion very minutely to inspect, and have found good reason to be satisfied with its general accuracy. The Biographical Sketches are also entertaining, and, in general, satisfactory; from these we shall select a specimen or two, as our readers will scarcely expect, we apprehend, an extract from mere chronological tables:

‘ C A V E N D I S H—FAMILY OF.

‘ This family, the original name of which was Gernon, took that of Cavendish, in consequence of the marriage of Geoffrey de Gernon with the heiress of John Potton, lord of Cavendish, in the fourteenth century.—His descendant, John Cavendish, was treasurer of the chamber to Henry VIII. by whom he was appointed one of the commissioners to take the surrender of the religious houses, and received from him the grant of several manors.—His grand-son was one of the adventurers in the settlement of Virginia, and was created, by James I. baron Cavendish, and earl of Devonshire.

‘ WILLIAM CAVENDISH, fourth earl and first duke of Devonshire, son of William earl of Devon, and Elizabeth, daughter of William Cecil, earl of Salisbury, was born 1640.—After receiving a classical education he made the tour of Europe, accompanied by Dr. Killigrew, whose knowledge in polite literature probably contributed to form the taste of his pupil.—In 1663 he was honoured with the degree of A. M. by the university of Oxford.—In 1665 he went a volunteer with the duke of York against the Dutch, and was present in the action off Harwich, in which he defeated admiral Opdam.—Such was now his repute for integrity, that in 1679 he was honoured by his sovereign with a nomination to the new privy council, which was intended, by the popularity of its members, to conciliate the public approbation to the measures of government. But, finding that he could neither oppose them with success nor support them with honour, he desired leave to resign.—He was chosen knight of the shire for the county of Derby in several parliaments, and strenuously, though unsuccessfully, opposed the  
stream



stream of venality and corruption, which, under the sanction of the royal example, then prevailed; and, as the sincere friend of the constitution in church and state, promoted every measure which he deemed conducive to its welfare or security, particularly the exclusion bill.—He succeeded his father in 1684.—Disapproving of the principles and measures of James II. he lived in retirement during his reign, till he had an opportunity of assisting in effecting the revolution.—After that event was accomplished, he was appointed steward of the household, knight of the garter, one of the privy council, and lord high steward at the coronation. And, in 1694, he was created marquis of Hartington, and duke of Devon. These honours he enjoyed during the reign of William and Mary, and they were continued to him by queen Anne.—In 1706, the duke and his son, the marquis of Hartington, were appointed of the commission for the union.—He did not long survive that event, dying August 1707.—His abilities as a statesman, and disinterested patriotism, did honour to the high offices which he bore, and the high rank to which he was raised; and his taste and proficiency in the belles lettres and liberal arts served as embellishments to his public character.—He had by Mary, daughter of the duke of Ormond, beside other children, his heir William, who married a daughter of the unfortunate lord William Russell; his grandson married the heiress of John Hoskins; whose son, William, the late duke, (who died 1764) married the heiress of the last earl of Burlington, by whom he had William, the present duke of Devonshire, who was born in 1748, and, in 1774, married Georgiana, daughter of the late earl Spencer.

Under the article, Romanow family on the throne of Russia, we find—

'PETER III.—CHARLES PETER ULRIC, son of the duke of Holstein Gottorp, and Anne, eldest daughter of the empress Elizabeth, was born 1728.—Was declared heir to the crown of Russia by the late empress, in 1742.—Married, 1745, Catharine, daughter of Christian-Augustus, prince of Anhalt Derbst. And succeeded to the throne, January 1762. —Having incurred the hatred of his subjects, by his partiality to Holsteiners and other foreigners, and some disagreeable schemes of reform, he was deposed six months after, and sent to a place of confinement: where he soon after died of a disorder in his bowels. His son, Paul Petrowitz, grand duke of Russia, was born 1754.—Married, 1773, Wilhelmina, daughter of the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, who died April 1776, without issue.—He married, October 1776, Sophia-Dorothea Augusta, daughter of the duke of Wirtemberg Stutgard, by whom he has several children.—Peter III. had also a daughter, Anne, now unmarried.'

In this article our readers will find a very culpable omission, not to say misrepresentation, which may have proceeded from

the extreme caution of our author.—Peter III, did not die of a disorder in the bowels, but was basely and cruelly murdered.

——— ' So the whole ear of Denmark  
Is, by a forged process of my death,  
Rankly abus'd: but know, thou noble youth,  
The serpent, that did sting thy father's life,  
Now wears his crown.'

*Essay on Novels; a Poetical Epistle. Addressed to an ancient and to a modern Bishop. With six Sonnets from Werter. By Alexander Thomson, Esq. Author of Whist, a Poem. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell. 1793.*

**A** Defence of *novel writing*, against the opinion of bishop Hurd, who has passed upon them the following censure, than which surely nothing can more strikingly shew the influence of that pedantry, from which it is so difficult for a profound classic scholar to be entirely free, however elegant his taste, and however acute his powers of criticism.

' What are we to think of those novels or romances, as they are called, that is, fables constructed on some private and familiar subject, which have been so current of late through all Europe? As they propose pleasure for their end, and prosecute it besides in the way of fiction, though without metrical numbers, and generally indeed in harsh and rugged prose, one easily sees what their pretensions are, and under what idea they are ambitious to be received; yet, as they are wholly destitute of measured sounds (to say nothing of their other numberless defects), they can at most be considered but as hasty, imperfect, and abortive poems; whether spawned from the dramatic or narrative species, it may be hard to say. However, such as they are, these novelties have been generally well received; some for the real merit of their execution; others, for their amusing subjects; all of them for the gratification they afford, or promise at least to a vitiated, palled, and sickly imagination, that last disease of learned minds, and sure prognostic of expiring letters. But whatever may be the temporary success of these things (for they vanish as fast as they are produced, and are produced as soon as they are conceived), good sense will acknowledge no work of art, but such as is composed according to the laws of its kind. We may indeed mix and confound them if we will, (for there is a sort of literary luxury, which would engross all pleasures at once, even such as are contradictory to each other) or in our rage for incessant gratification, we may take up with half-formed pleasures, such as come first to hand, and may be administered by any body. But true taste requires chaste, severe, and simple pleasures; and true genius will only be concerned in administering such.

*Hurd on the Idea of Universal Poetry.*  
On



On sentiments like these our author observes with becoming spirit:

‘What sentiments of indignation must be felt by every person of genuine taste, when he is told that Milton has no other merit than that of being a successful imitator of Homer; when he meets with a pedant, who, though intimately acquainted with every one of the Greek tragedies, had never the curiosity to read a drama of Shakespeare; who talks most familiarly of Aristophanes and Plautus; but would smile with contempt and pity for your ignorance, if you ventured to mention the School for Scandal; who expatiates with rapture upon the various beauties to be found in the Odes of Pindar and of Horace, but is astonished when he hears of the Lyric Pieces of Collins; and stares when you tell him of the bard of Gray; who will repeat to you readily, whenever you desire him, more than half of the amorous epistles of Ovid, but never condescended to charge his memory with a single couplet of Eloisa to Abelard.

‘Were opinions like these confined entirely to pedants, their tendency could not be very dangerous, either from the influence of precept or example. But, when we find persons, who, upon other occasions have given ample proofs of the elegance of their taste, censuring every composition as defective, that is not formed upon the models of antiquity; when we hear such an eminent writer as Hurd, proscribing (in conformity to these principles) every kind of fictitious history not decorated with the trappings of poetical numbers, without condescending to make any exception in favour of the labours of Richardson and Fielding, it were difficult to determine whether such a sentence tends more to move our indignation or our pity.’

We do not, however, think our author's ideas more accurate than the learned bishop's; for the latter asserts that novels *ought* to be poems, and the former, that they *are* so.

‘He should be sorry if he were capable of making such a narrow definition of poetry as would exclude the History of Clarissa Harlowe. Every work, which addresses either the fancy or the heart, and is composed in elegant and animated language, he has always held to be poetry.’

Now, of all interesting compositions, the author could not have chosen one that had less affinity to poetry than Clarissa Harlowe; it has not a spark of that kind of fancy which we call poetical, and the style is only that of conversation. As to the pathetic, it by no means belongs exclusively to poetry. On the contrary, the simplicity of prose rather suits it best. We shall not quarrel, however, with any critic who chuses to assert that Clarissa or Gil Blas is very near as good verse as this author's poetical epistle, which, we must say, is written in a very careless, slovenly manner, and beginning with blank verse, suddenly changes to rhyme. Subjoined are five sonnets from

from passages of Werter versified, which by the way is rather unnecessary if they were poems before. These are finished with more care than the epistle; but we cannot help thinking the sentiments appear to more advantage in the narrative, to which likewise they must be referred before they can be understood.

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*A Sketch of a Tour on the Continent, in the Years 1786 and 1787. (Concluded from our last.)*

THE second and third volumes of these interesting travels do not yield in instruction or entertainment to the first. We shall now return to our author, whom we left surveying the wonders of Rome.

‘The Borgheze chapel is of the same size and figure as its opposite neighbour, and in like manner decorated with the mausoleums of Paul V. the founder, and Clement VIII. The altar, and indeed every part, is as richly adorned as possible, and in a style worthy of the materials. In this chapel a singular ceremony is performed in August every year, in memory of the building of the church. A plentiful shower of flowers of jasmine is made to fall from the dome to the floor during service. This is to commemorate a shower of snow, of which a certain pope is said to have dreamed one night in August, and when he awoke, to have found it had really fallen in the night on the hill where this church stands, where he could certainly do no less than build a church in memory of the important miracle. How much taste has this elegant people, even in their most contemptible mummery! How pleasant to dream of snow at Rome in August, and how luxurious to imitate it with jasmine! We were told, however, that no women ever partook of this luxury. Such is the aversion of the sex in Italy to all kind of perfumes, that they avoid this church as they would a pestilence, whenever this ceremony is performed.’

Our author's description of the last day of the carniva is lively and striking :

‘We mixed with the motley crowd every afternoon, our English clothes serving most completely as a masquerade dress, and procuring us a number of rencounters, all of the facetious and good-humoured kind. Tuesday, February 20th, was the last day of Carnival, and on that evening all the diversions were carried to their highest pitch. The crowd was prodigious; but although every body was full of tricks, and all distinction of ranks and persons laid aside, the whole passed off without the least ill behaviour, or any thing like a quarrel. It was the most good-humoured mob I ever saw. About dusk every body took a small lighted taper in their hands, and most people held several; happy were they who could keep the greatest number lighted, for the amusement consisted in trying to extinguish each



each other's candles. Some people carried large flambeaux. All the windows, and even roofs, being crowded with spectators, and scarcely any body without lights, the street looked like a starry firmament. Below were many carriages parading up and down, much more whimsical and gawdy than had yet appeared. Some resembled triumphal cars decked with wreaths of flowers, and party-coloured lamps in festoons. The company within carried tapers, and a plentiful ammunition of sugar-plumbs, with which they pelted their acquaintances on each side, infomuch that the field of action looked next morning as if there had been a shower of snow. These carriages contained the first company and most elegant women in Rome, fantastically dressed, but generally unmasked. They were open to the jokes and compliments of any body who chose to stand on the steps of their coach doors, which were very low, and the ladies were not backward in repartée. When they had no answer ready, a volley of sugar-plumbs generally repulsed their besiegers. The ranks on the raised foot-way, and the crowd below, were in a continual roar of laughter, some with effusions of real humour, while those who could sport no better wit, bawled out, as they carried their branches of wax candles, "*Sia amazzato chi non ha lume,*" (Kill all those that have no lights); to which the others answered, "Kill all those that have." Others called out, "*Siano amazzati gli abati, barbieri, capucini, or my-lordi,*" the latter to us Englishmen; and sometimes they called us *Francesi* (Frenchmen). A few fire-works were exhibited, but no very capital ones. On the whole, we were highly entertained with this grotesque amusement, and could not but admire the perfect good-nature of the people, who could carry off such a scene without the least disorder. Between eight and nine o'clock every body retired, and all was quiet.

The St. Richard of England, who puzzles our ingenious traveller, vol. II. p. 85, may be found, we believe, in the Hagiologies of Ribadeneira, and others. He belongs to the Saxon times; and has no connection with our Richard I, or II. far less with the third of that name:

Our author proceeds to Naples.

'I am assured, on very good authority, nothing can exceed the ignorance of the Neapolitan nobility, except their insolence and meanness. If one of them recommends a tradesman to a stranger, he will lay that tradesman under a contribution in consequence. Here and there one meets with a duke or a prince who has so much of the shadow of literature, as to be a collector of old useless books; but it is rare to find one who can read them. All the Neapolitans in general bestow great contempt on the strangers whose curiosity prompts them to ascend Mount Vesuvius, and scarcely one among an hundred of them can be found who has been upon that mountain. Few have ever seen Portici, or Pompeia. Their prevailing inclination

inclination is for empty shew and idle dissipation, for they have scarcely spirit or feeling enough to pursue even pleasure with ardour or taste. If these be the "Corinthian capitals of polished society," it must be allowed they are as yet but little advanced from the *block*. In music alone their taste is refined. I accompanied Mr. Stanbusch, in his chariot, to the Corso one Friday, on which day, throughout Lent, a great parade of equipages is to be seen there. Many of the coaches, gay and fantastic as possible, were drawn by eight horses, and some by ten. Each equipage was preceded by one loose horse, decked with ribbands, and a running footman or two beside him. This has a very elegant appearance, as the animals are trained to exhibit themselves to the best advantage. The women of this country did not strike me as handsome; at least whenever I met with an English woman at Naples, or indeed in other parts of Italy, she seemed, by comparison, an angel; but perhaps that is not a fair way of judging.

At Portici we saw such parts of the museum as we had not time to visit the preceding day; but many days and months would be requisite to study this amazing collection. The infinite variety of bronze vases, statues, tripods, lamps, &c. for the most part in a fine taste; the culinary utensils, many of them unintelligible to modern luxury; the provisions themselves, as loaves of bread, dates, bird-seed, pine-nuts, carobs, &c. whose shape is very perfect, though their substance is changed to charcoal; the sight of these gives an impression not to be described. One cannot think they belonged to people who lived 1700 years ago. The beautiful mosaics are less astonishing, for they are made to last to the end of the world. Here are many utensils of glass, and some pieces of very fine pastes, particularly a mass of yellow, a portion of which has been polished, and looks as well as any thing made at present. Also many things of ivory, and some curious gold lace, made of wire only, without thread. Some of this, with some linen, were found about the bones of a lady, the impression of whose neck and breasts may be seen moulded in the lava. The rolled manuscripts have been often described, as well as the contrivance for unfolding them; but the operation goes on very slowly, nor have the discoveries hitherto repaid the necessary pains. The best statue is a large bronze Mercury in a sitting posture.

We shall pass many interesting particulars, to return with our traveller to Rome. The warrior kneeling before a buck, with a cross between its horns, vol. II. p. 225, is St. Hubert, not St. Eustatius: but the worthy doctor has not *botanized* among the saints. When he arrives at Venice, our author certainly errs in his assertion, vol. II. p. 402, that the doge's palace is of Saracenic architecture. From the annals of Dandolo,



delo, and other early works on Venetian history, it is certain that the architects, painters, &c. were all Greeks from Constantinople, between which city and Venice, there existed for eight centuries so intimate an intercourse, that almost all the singularities of architecture, dress, customs, &c. which distinguish Venice, are completely Byzantine. Even the Saracenic monarchs in Spain had their artists from Constantinople (see Cardmunés, and other histories, of the Moors in Spain); and the greater part of Moresque architecture may be safely believed to be late barbaric Grecian.

‘ The glass manufactory carried on at Murano, an island scarcely one mile from Venice, deserves to be visited, rather for what it has been, than what it is. About a century ago, Venice glasses were as much in request as Venetian treacle; but the French first, and now the English, have greatly surpassed this manufactory. The water of the canals happening to be very low, vast numbers of small crabs, *Cancer Mænas*, were seen sticking to the walls, just above the surface, as we went along. They are collected in great quantities for food; but kept some time in ponds at Murano, to purge them, as it is said, before they are eaten.

‘ On arriving at Murano we saw the making of plate glass. It is first blown into a long cylinder, the end of which is cut off, and then a slit made with a huge pair of shears all the way up, so that it may be expanded into a square piece; which is then laid on an iron or brass plate, and heated till it becomes flat. The glass is also obliged to be heated repeatedly during the first part of the process, as no man's breath is sufficient to inflate it to a proper size at once; nor indeed can any glasses possibly be made so large by this method, as by the French mode of casting them. The plates are afterwards tempered, or annealed. We did not see the polishing, as that is performed at another place, and may be seen in greater perfection at Paris or London.

‘ At another house beads are manufactured, by drawing out coloured glass into slender cylinders, which are afterwards cut into beads, and these rounded by heat. Two workmen take a lump of red-hot glass between them, applying a pipe to each end. After blowing a little, they run different ways, throwing the mass into undulations like a string as they draw it out, by this means forming a slender tube, perhaps 150 yards in length, and scarcely a line in diameter, perforated all through, and sometimes coated only with coloured glass.

‘ A warehouse adjoining exhibited a prodigious variety of patterns of beads, knife handles, and other toys made here, chiefly for the Turkish trade. We bought a few bell handles as a specimen of so celebrated a manufactory. After our return, being at dinner, a man, who had served us as cicerone at Murano, came in with a written message from the proprietor of this warehouse, as he pretended,

ed, saying he had by mistake charged but half what he ought to have done for these articles, and begged we would send the rest of the sum. Perceiving his contrivance, we told him we thought them rather too dear already, and he might therefore take them back. This he declined, and would then have compounded for something for his trouble in coming, or for boat-hire; but we were inexorable on these points as on the other, so he got nothing by his ingenuity but a voyage in a very heavy rain, and some jeering from the waiters at the inn, who had listened with all gravity till they found him worsted.

The third and last volume opens with the author's journey from Venice to Padua. In the latter city, M. Arduino is professor of agriculture.

‘Professor Arduino is a great maker of experiments relative to agriculture and economical objects. He shewed us thread made of the bark of *Palma Christi*, *Ricinus communis*, and very good thread, with strong cloth, from the same part of *Asclepias fruticosa*, with another kind of cloth made of the down of its seeds, carded and spun, which his sons used to wear for cloathing, and which he assured us was very strong. It looks and feels like tolerably fine woollen cloth. I observed, with surprise, that it was moth-eaten, which Mr. Arduino attributed to its being dressed with oil. This *Asclepias* grows without any trouble in Italy, though a Cape plant, and produces abundance of seed. He also shewed us good sugar and treacle procured from *Holcus Caser*, described and figured by himself, among other species, in a dissertation on that genus. Surely the large *Holci* would be worth cultivating in Europe for sugar. They are annuals of quick growth, and very large bulk, abounding with saccharine juice as much as the sugar-cane, at least in Italy. The professor has invented a machine for sowing seed, of the merits of which I do not presume to judge.’

Of the noted printing-house at Parma, Dr. Smith gives the following account:

‘A very great curiosity in its way is the Parma printing-office, carried on under the direction of Mr. Bodoni, who has brought that art to a degree of perfection scarcely known before him. Nothing could exceed his civility in shewing us numbers of the beautiful productions of his press, of which he gave us some specimens, as well as the operations of casting and finishing the letters. He was extremely anxious to procure a certain kind of very small files, only to be had at Sheffield, and which he said several travelling gentlemen and noblemen had promised to send him, but without keeping their word. We were happy in supplying him immediately on our return. The materials of his types are antimony and lead, as in other places; but he shewed us some of steel. He has sets of all the



the known alphabets, with diphthongs, accents, and other peculiarities, in the greatest perfection. His Greek types are peculiarly beautiful, though of a different kind of beauty from those of old Stephens, and perhaps less free and flowing in their forms. His paper is all made at Parma. The manner in which Mr. Bodoni gives his works their beautiful smoothness, so that no impression of the letters is perceptible on either side, is the only part of his business that he keeps secret. This effect is produced sufficiently well by means of a hot press, as practised in London. Our Shakespear press indeed leaves nothing to be desired in that of Parma.

In describing Turin, our author offers the following remarks:

‘The exportation of raw silk is chiefly in the hands of Protestant merchants, either Swiss or Vaudois, the government having learned, for its own interest, rather than from motives of humanity or christian charity, to allow them to live at peace, though not publicly to profess their religion. That privilege these poor people are only allowed in their own country, after every infernal means has been used in vain to deprive them of it. There they have churches, in which they boast that christianity, pure and undefiled from its first promulgation, has been taught and practised. There they bury their dead, and frequently go to worship; and as the insolent sufferance they receive in the capital

“But binds them to their native mountains more,”

they all look to a peaceful retirement in the bosom of their country, as the great object of their wishes for declining life.

‘In treating of these subjects, one is almost out of patience with human nature. Our indignation at the execrable malevolence of such governments is overcome by our contempt for their folly. How many more hundreds of years will they reckon by the name of the merciful Lord of all mankind, before they learn that the methods they take to root out *truth* (for I have not the charity to believe they always think they are opposing *error*) are the very means of giving it strength? An honest desire to be right, too apt to decay in the lap of ease and prosperity, thrives with most vigour in adversity. Or even if, according to the vulgar opinion, there be merit in mere belief, it must be greatest when that belief is attended with danger: there can be little value in the most perfect orthodoxy, embraced for the sake of ease or emolument. Perhaps therefore authority would most effectually, though indirectly, promote purity of doctrine, together with honesty of principle, by selecting *absurdity* for its patronage; and indeed one is sometimes tempted to think this is really its plan. However that may be, it is certain that the exercise of undue authority over the mind ever counteracts its own intentions. I believe our established church of England is more

pure

pure and correct than others, very much in proportion as it is more free from a persecuting or dogmatical spirit; for it is a trite observation, that positiveness and want of temper are signs of weakness of argument and error of judgment.

Dr. Smith's botanical excursions to the Alps form the most interesting subjects in that department, and we shall therefore extract them.

' Aug. 12. Early in the morning we found ourselves among the narrow passes about the foot of the Alps, with majestic scenery intermixed with cultivation, and here and there a not very flourishing village. Passed through Suze, the key of Piedmont, which of course is very strongly fortified; its bastions are cut out of the live rock. The country grew more hilly and romantic at every step. At the miserable village of la Novalaise we were obliged to quit our carriages for mules; and after a tedious ascent by a zigzag stony road, no way dangerous however, we reached the top, that is, the plain of Mount Cenis, towards noon.

' Within about a mile of the summit I found *Juncus filiformis* in a wet place on the left of the road, and *Lichen polyrhizos* on a rock near it. Not far from hence, on a small plain before we arrived at the great one, grew *Bartsia alpina* in seed, *Trifolium agrarium* of Linn. (Dickson's Dried Plants, No. 80), widely different from that of English writers, and many other rare plants. On our right, a magnificent cascade fell close to the road. All along a great part of the way I had observed various alpine species of *Anemone* and *Pedicularis*, mostly in seed, with a novelty of appearance in the herbage highly encouraging, and a luxuriance, at which (having no idea of alpine pastures) I was surprised. I lamented only the advanced state of these plants, and feared we were too late for the season; but when I found the plain of Mount Cenis all flowery with the rarest alpine productions, such as we delight to see even dragging on a miserable existence in our gardens, and the greatest part of which, disdainful of our care and favour, scorn to breathe any other air than that of their native rocks, none but an admirer of nature can enter into my feelings. Even the most common grass here was *Phleum alpinum*, and the heathy plain glowed with *Rhododendrum ferrugineum*, and *Arnica montana*. Well might Clusius so beautifully say — "*Nos carent altissimi montes præruptique scopuli suis etiam deliciis;*" nor need one have the science of a Clusius to feel pleasure in such scenes. Scarcely any traveller passes the Alps in summer without either lamenting the "neglect of his botanical studies," or more honestly regretting that he had never attended to this source of pleasure at all. I have long ago perhaps tired the reader with my admiration of the works of art. If he has had indulgence enough for me to get thus far, he must now lay in a fresh stock of patience while I ex-

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patiate on the productions of nature; unless he should chance to be a botanist, and then all I can say will not satisfy his curiosity.'

'The plain itself is full of inequalities. Towards the northern extremity are two or three beautiful lakes, with an island in the principal one, clothed with shrubs and rich pasturage. This lake empties itself to the south by a small river, whose rocky channel often forms considerable cascades of great beauty, and is overhung with luxuriant herbage, and shrubberies of *Rosa Alpina*, *Mespilus* (or rather *Cratægus*) *Chamæmespilus*, &c. &c. This part of Mount Cenis is seldom visited by travellers; but, being within a moderate walk from the post-house or the hospital, richly deserves attention. On the other side of the rivulet, about the bottom of the hills, are some alders, which, being sheltered by the craggy rocks, attain a considerable height; otherwise no tree in general, not even the fir, grows to any size so high on the Alps. A little farther up are most delicious pastures, intersected with alder thickets, and bordered with *Cacalia alpina*, *Aquilegia alpina*, *Ranunculus aconitifolius*, *Sisymbrium tanacetifolium*, *Pyrola minor*, *Juncus spicatus*, and other rarities. This beautiful *Aquilegia*, which far exceeds our garden kind, was very sparingly in flower, and I am obliged for its detection to my faithful attendant Francis Borone, who here imbibed that taste for botany which afterwards led him to Sierra Leone; and by whose acuteness and activity I have often profited.

'Some little hillocks on the left of the front of the hospital are covered with *Rhododendrum ferrugineum*, among which grew *Pyrola rotundifolia*, and in the clefts of the rocks the very rare *Saponaria lutea* (Smith Spileg. bot. t. 5). Here I first found *Lichen cucullatus*, Transf. of Linn. Soc. vol. i. 84, t. 4, f. 7, which I am astonished any body can confound with *L. nivalis*: the latter too grows here, as does *L. ochroleucus*, Dickson fasc. crypt. iii. 19. Descending towards the river I came to a most delightful little valley, like the vale of Tempe in miniature, with a meandering rivulet, scarcely three or four feet broad, running through it, and bordered with abrupt precipices not much more in height, in which were several fairy caves and grottos, their entrances clothed with a tapestry of mantling bushes of *Salix reticulata* and *retusa*. These dwarf willows grow close pressed to the rocks, whether horizontal or perpendicular, almost like ivy, and may be stripped off in large woody portions. By the rivulet, which issued in several streams from these caves, was a profusion of *Anthericum calyculatum* and *Leontodon aureum*, with many other things equally uncommon, and in full bloom.

'Aug. 14. We all sallied forth on foot, about five in the morning, to ascend little Mount Cenis, one of the most considerable hills that front the hospital on the other side of the lake. Pursuing a

C. R. N. ARR. (XI.) Aug. 1794.

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winding path through the thickets, we came to a few cottages, in surely one of the most retired habitable spots in Europe, and which probably are seldom four months in the year uncovered with snow. Yet at this season who would not have envied their situation? No lowland scenes can give an idea of the rich entangled foliage, the truly enamelled turf of the Alps. Here we were charmed with the purple glow of *Scutellaria alpina*; there the grass was studded with the vivid blue of innumerable gentians, mixed with glowing crow-foots, and the less ostentatious *Astrantia major* and *Saxifraga rotundifolia*, whose blossoms require a microscope to discover all their beauties; while the alpine rose, *Rosa alpina*, bloomed on the bushes, and, as a choice gratification for the more curious botanist, under its shadow by the pebbly margin of the lake, *Carex filiformis* presented itself. The richness of nature, both as to colour and form, which expand so luxuriantly in tropical climates, seem here not diminished but condensed. The farther we ascended, the more every production lessened. By the sandy bed of a torrent, which runs from the glaciers above, the very elegant *Saxifraga cæsia* seemed to emulate the glistening of the hoar frost about it.

At length, about eleven o'clock, we reached a small plain full two-thirds of the way to the top. Here we divided. Some of our party were adventurous enough to climb the very summit; but being already got to the utmost limits of vegetation, and near those of perpetual snow, I had no business higher. Indeed this plain appeared to be clothed with a short barren turf that promised little; nor was it till I examined it on my hands and knees, that I discovered this turf to be a rich assemblage of *Cherleria sedoides*, *Alchemilla pentaphyllea*, *Chrysanthemum atratum*, *Gentiana nivalis*, and other diminutive inhabitants of the highest Alps, among which one of the most beautiful is a dwarf variety of the common eye-bright, *Euphrasia officinalis*, with large purple flowers.

This plain was occasionally sunk, on the margin of the declivity, into little hollows, watered by very small trickling rills, and there vegetation appeared extremely luxuriant. *Bartsia Alpina* was here but in flower, along with *Satyrion nigrum*; the latter smelling like vanilla. I observed a pair of *Papilio Apollos* in this exalted region, fluttering about and celebrating their innocent nuptials.

After enjoying from hence the view of the plain of Mount Cenis, with the lake and woods about it, we descended on the side fronting the hospital, and arrived there by six o'clock, not a little fatigued, having been all day on our legs, without any refreshment except what a servant had carried with us; but I believe our satisfaction much exceeded our fatigue.

Aug. 15. This day Dr. Bellardi and myself ascended the hill called Ronche, immediately behind the hospital, where professor Allioni first discovered *Viola Cenisia* and *Campanula Cenisia*. Dr. Bellardi found them this day, though I was not so fortunate; nor did I meet



meet with any thing very desirable except *Juncus Jacquini*; and in the boggy sides of a little rivulet, in the very highest part of the mountain, a little *Carex* of great rarity, the *juncifolia* of Allion's *Flora Pedemontana*. This is certainly the same species as Light-foot's *C. incurva*, though on the Alps, its stem is seldom curved. I have it also from Iceland. *Juncus triglimis* grew along with it, and in other parts of the hill *Carex fatida* of Allioni, and *C. atrata*, with *Antirrhinum multicaule*.

Before the post-house are some remarkable white limestone rocks, on which grow *Dianthus virgineus*, and the real *Festuca spadiacea* (see Transf. of Linn. Soc. vol. i. p. 111.) Below these rocks by the lake I gathered the most beautiful *Gentiana asclepiadea*, and in the surrounding pastures *Agrostema Flus Jovis*, *Senecio Doronicum*, *Aster alpinus*, *Centaurea uniflora*, *Arnica montana*, and the *Rumex arifolius* of Linnæus's Supplement, which last is, I presume, more certainly a native of the Alps than of Abyssinia. Immediately before the hospital is great plenty of *Rumex Alpinus*, and a little farther on I joyfully waded up to my knees in a swamp to gather *Swertia perennis*. All the plain abounds with the beautiful *Dianthus alpinus*, the leaves of which differ so much in narrowness and sharpness from the Austrian one, that I have sometimes suspected them to be distinct species. Nothing however is more common on Mount Cenis than *Dryas octopetala*, forming thick tufts many feet in breadth, covered with its elegant flowers and feathery heads of seeds. On this elastic alpine couch we frequently reposed when tired with walking, and the delicious temperature of the air made any shelter perfectly indifferent.

Such are a part of the botanical riches of this interesting mountain, not to mention numerous species of *Arenaria*, *Silene*, *Archilæa*, *Astragalus*, *Juncus*, and grasses of various kinds. Of all these treasures I laid in as large a stock as I could well bring away, multiplying my own enjoyments in the anticipation of the pleasure I should have in supplying my friends at home. The selfish dealer in mysteries and secrets; the hoarder of unique specimens, knows nothing of the best pleasures of science.

But we must leave the Alps to attend our traveller to Geneva.

The first thing I heard here was every body in the streets singing airs out of Rousseau's *Devin de Village*, which is often acted here; and his portrait, with various honorary devices, is to be found in every house and shop. What do we learn from hence? That the more public opinion is misled for a time, and made the tool of unjust persecution; it afterwards, with the more violence, takes a contrary bent, when once it finds itself the dupe of designing villainy or bigotry; especially as cruelty is the most detestable of vices, all social crimes being black in proportion as they partake of it.

And as power combined with cruelty is the most odious form in which human nature in society can appear, whoever suffers from its malignity, naturally obtains our pity and indulgence, and we exaggerate all his merits. Hence some characters acquire celebrity with very weak pretensions; and hence even the best perhaps have often providentially derived a splendour and authority which human virtue and wisdom are in themselves seldom unmixed or exalted enough to deserve, and still more seldom conspicuous enough to the "swinish multitude" to obtain. Let it be remembered, therefore, by all whom it may concern, that discussion can never finally injure truth, nor persecution root out error; that the way to render a people truly religious and truly loyal is to make them intelligent and happy; and the government which does this in the greatest perfection, whatever its form may be, need fear neither atheists, revolutionists, nor levellers; while all those which fail in these points, have so far in themselves the seeds of their own destruction.

A superior account of the celebrated tomb of madame Langhans' to that of Dr. Smith, vol. III. p. 176, may be found in Coxe's Switzerland. The following liberal remarks deserve attention:

'I have always wondered at those who made the case of the French so much our own, whether they thought our government wanted a reform, or not. It seems more peculiarly injudicious in the latter class to have done so, as the necessity for the French to amend their condition was undoubted, and we had long held them in contempt for not attempting it. Exclamations of danger to ourselves from their attempt (so long as they kept to their own affairs) implied, therefore, a conscious weakness and error at home. On the contrary, I believe some of the first Englishmen who exulted with manly openness at the beginning of the French revolution, never thought of any dangerous application here, till it had been made for them; and when that application was made, all the really turbulent and designing spirits were glad to shelter themselves under such respectable banners, while the truly good and honest bore all the odium, and their enemies gladly took advantage of it. A *bellua multorum capitem*, a "swinish multitude" of all ranks, is always ready at hand to be directed by one party or another, now against Catholics, now against Dissenters, according as it may happen to suit the politics of the day.

'I conceive the public mind might have been with more certainty kept quiet from the beginning, by temperate intelligible publications, commending the zeal of our neighbours for liberty, and encouraging the hope that by their obtaining a rational government like ours, instead of the tyrannical and intriguing one they had before, a lasting alliance might originate between us, without fear of those bloody wars, in which so many human beings have been sacrificed,



sacrificed, at the whim of a favourite or a courtesan, and without the bulk of either nation knowing why they were undertaken. If alarms had arisen at home, it might have been suggested that we had already gone through what the French wanted, a revolution in government and a reformation in religion; and whether we had reached perfection or not, prudence required waiting at least till our neighbour *excelled* us. When that vigorous step was set, of abolishing all nobility, instead of childish declamation and lamentations, it would have been more to the purpose to have shewn what the French nobility as a body really were, how infinitely numerous, how absurdly privileged, how proud, idle, and dissipated; surely it was a great injustice to our own nobility, who are legislators, or a determinate part of the government, to confound them with those of France! Whatever the latter might have been originally, they had long lost all beneficial powers and privileges, for which the court had compensated them, at the expence of the nation, by allowing them all manner of noxious ones, such as no manly rational people ought to bear. On this subject I cannot refer to better authority than Mr. Arthur Young's Travels, to prove the mischief of these privileges relative to the important article of agriculture.

As to the order of nobility, in itself abstractedly considered, much may be said for and against it. When it has no pernicious powers, independent of those great laws of a state, by which even sovereigns are bound, it has many advantages. It is an economical way of rewarding merit, and its very existence as a thing of value depends upon its not being made cheap. It is at its own peril too that it debases itself by any means, and the main interest of the whole order jointly and separately consists in its members not disgracing their rank. I speak of nobility now as a thing whose sole value depends on opinion, as mere titles. When exemptions from law are connected with these, the case becomes different.

Disputes about forms of government too are endless. Some are undoubtedly bad, as an absolute monarchy; but that a limited one should, therefore, be bad, is very far from the truth. At first sight an hereditary monarchy of any kind appears ineligible, and, perhaps, so much so, that human reason might never have contrived it. On this ground it has been cavilled at, and the cavillers answered over and over again; for it is a sufficient answer that this plan is found to be attended with fewer inconveniencies in practice, than many others more specious in appearance. Upon these subjects thinking men may speculate, and their discussions be as free as air, that the world may profit, as it always must, by the exercise of reason. It ill becomes those who differ in opinion to descend to the illiberality of fanatics, and call one another names. Neither is it adviseable for them to force their experiments upon mankind. Rational beings should be guided by reason. When a new government is recommended, or an old one defended, let the arguments be laid down

plainly and fairly, void of all declamation, satire, or wit. The one scheme is not to be tried because it is new, nor the other retained because it is old; but if the former be evidently much better than the existing state of things, and, therefore, would compensate for the great difficulty and trouble of a change, then alone could it deserve any attention; or if, on the contrary, the old establishment should appear to answer its purpose well, or to be capable of amending itself, the hazard of supplanting it by another is by no means advisable.

‘ A few plain sober considerations of the above complexion, free from all political cant, superstition, party aggravations, and interested deceptions, would, I am persuaded, have kept old England perfectly safe from the beginning, without having recourse to dangerous palliatives, such as raising a horror of innovation, and opposing the rage of party against party, and sect against sect, which have so often been tried with such very bad and even fatal success. And well they may, for they are only making use of the *follies* of mankind. What a reproach is it upon our species that we so often address ourselves to these follies, rather than to our nobler faculties and principles !

‘ I little thought I should ever have written so much upon any political subject; for the small benefit I have always perceived to be derived to the wisdom, happiness, or honesty, of those who interest themselves much in these matters, has rather deterred me from the study of partial politics. The general great interests of truth and humanity are, indeed, a worthy and exalting enquiry. History, as it serves to develope these, is a noble study; and a good man may in some measure be indemnified for sullyng his mind with the contemplation of court intrigues, and wearying his patience with the squabbles of heroes, to learn why all his fellow creatures are not happy, and how they may have a chance of becoming so, even in spite of their own mistaken endeavours.’

At the end of the third and last volume is given an Appendix, containing a *catalogue raisonné* of guide-books, and general works on Italy. Amid the latter, it might have been remarked, that Addison's quotations from the classics, in his Remarks on Italy, are borrowed from Alberti. The character of Mr. Young's agricultural travels in France, we shall transcribe, after reminding the reader, that a *place* is a sovereign receipt to convert a democrat into an aristocrat.

‘ Full and intelligent upon every thing relative to agriculture, the professed object of the work. It is moreover one of the strongest publications in the English language against all sorts of aristocratic tyranny, and undue authority of every kind, being founded at every step, not on speculative theories, but on actual observation. We meet with peculiarly warm remarks of this kind.

“ A grand



"A grand seigneur will at any time, and in any country, explain the reason of improveable land being left waste." p. 43.—Again, speaking of wars between France and England,

"What a satire on the government of the two kingdoms, to permit in one the prejudices of manufactures and merchants, and in the other the insidious policy of an ambitious court, to hurry the two nations for ever into wars that check all beneficial works, and spread ruin where private exertion was busied in deeds of prosperity!" p. 47. This, indeed, is somewhat paradoxical, as the "*prejudices of manufacturers and merchants*" are generally *against* wars.

"What have kings, and ministers, and parliaments, and states, to answer for their *prejudices*, seeing millions of hands that would be industrious, idle and starving through the execrable maxims of despotism, or the equally detestable *prejudices* of a feudal nobility!" p. 84. "The destruction of rank" is said (p. 151) "not to imply ruin."

'The author, though generally an enthusiast for his plough, is sometimes in danger of becoming a cicisbeo. p. 204 and 208. He is every where entertaining, always instructive in his own line, and sometimes in other walks of knowledge.'

Good indexes, so rare in works published in Great Britain, are added: 1. an index of natural history: 2. a general index. We need hardly repeat our opinion, that the work does honour to the author; and will ever be classed among the most useful and entertaining books of travels.

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*Hiero; on the Condition of Royalty: a Conversation, from the Greek of Xenophon. By the Translator of Antoninus's Meditations. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1793.*

**X**ENEPHON, from the elegance and sweetness of his language, has been called the Attic Muse, and the Bee of Greece. His character as a writer is so well known, that we hold it unnecessary to attempt a delineation; and shall leave the translator to introduce the present work to the public in his own words.

'Hiero, from whom this dialogue takes its name, was king or tyrant of Syracuse, the capital of Sicily, one of the most flourishing republics, and most beautiful and magnificent cities of Greece. They had conferred the sovereign power on Gelon, the elder brother of Hiero, after his victory over the Carthaginians, which rescued them from the yoke of that tyrannical and sanguinary republic. Historians are divided about the real character of Hiero, though their different opinions may easily, I think, be reconciled.

'On his first accession to the throne, he was avaricious, haughty, vindictive, and cruel. And having not sufficient confidence in the affection

affection of his subjects, he found it necessary to keep in pay some mercenary troops, as guards of his person, which made him still more unpopular. But a tedious illness having given him time for reflection, to amuse himself in his confinement, he invited and detained at his court, by the most *liberal* treatment in every sense of the word, men distinguished for their wisdom and ingenuity from every part of Greece; and, by conversing frequently and freely with them, from a cruel and haughty tyrant, became modest, humble, and humane; regained the love of his subjects, and passed the remainder of his life respected and esteemed. Amongst the learned men who resided at his court, the most in his confidence was Simonides, the other speaker in this dialogue; not only an excellent poet, (as appears by some fragments of his works still extant) but a philosopher of great wisdom and virtue, and of a character so respectable, that he is said to have prevented a war between Hiero and Theron king of Agrigentum, and reconciled them by his interposition.

‘This conversation, in the former part, contains the parallel which Hiero draws between the condition of kings and that of private persons; and in the latter, the precepts which Simonides gives for the conduct of kings in general. The wisdom and ingenuity of this poet, joined to his great age, give him sufficient authority to take upon him this latter article; and no one could be more proper to sustain the former character, than a prince who had lived so long as a private man, and was now raised to the sovereignty of so powerful a commonwealth; and consequently knew by experience the real difference, in regard to happiness or misery, between a private station and the condition of royalty.’

The design of this Treatise is to shew that, in all the natural enjoyments, kings, or tyrants, have less pleasure than common men, and that, indeed, they are objects of compassion: chap. XIVth may serve as a specimen:

“But I will now lay before you, my Simonides, added Hiero, a true account of those pleasures which I enjoyed, when I was a private man, and which I find myself deprived of since I became a king. I then conversed familiarly with my equals; delighted with their company, as they were with mine: and I conversed also with myself, whenever I chose to indulge in the calm of solitude.

“I frequently spent my time in convivial entertainments, and drinking with my friends, so as to forget the chagrins to which human life is obnoxious; nay, often to a degree of extravagance; to singing, dancing, and every degree of festivity, unrestrained but by our own inclination. But I am now debarred from the society of those who could afford me any delight, as I have slaves alone for my companions, instead of friends: nor can I converse agreeably with men in whom I cannot discover the least benevolence or at-  
attachment



tachment to me; and I am forced to guard against intoxication or sleep, as a most *dangerous* snare.

“ But now, to be continually alarmed, either in a crowd, or in solitude: to be in fear when without guards, and to be afraid of the guards themselves: to be unwilling to have them about me without their arms, and to be under apprehensions to see them armed; what a wretched state of existence is this!

“ Moreover, to place a greater confidence in strangers than in one's own countrymen; in barbarians, than in Greeks; to be under a necessity of treating freemen like slaves, and to give slaves their freedom; are not all these things evident symptoms of a mind disturbed and quite deranged by fear? Now this passion of fear not only creates uneasiness, and diffuses a constant gloom over the mind, but, being mixed with all our pleasures, deprives us of all kind of enjoyment.

“ But, if you have had any experience of military affairs, Simonides, and have ever been posted near a body of the enemy; only recollect, how little you were disposed either to eat or to sleep in that situation. Such as were your uneasy sensations on that occasion; such, or rather more dreadful, are those to which tyrants are continually exposed: for their imagination not only represents their enemies as encamped in their sight, but as surrounding them on every side.”

“ To this, Simonides answered, “ Your observation is extremely just. War is undoubtedly subject to continual alarms. Nevertheless, even during a campaign, when we have previously disposed our sentinels, we eat and sleep in the utmost security.”

“ That is very true,” said Hiero, “ for the laws watch over the guards themselves; so that they are as much in fear on their own account as on yours. But kings have only mercenaries for their guards, whom they pay as they do their labourers in *the harvest*. And though the principal duty of guards is to be faithful to their trust, yet it is more difficult to find one of that description faithful, than the generality of workmen in any branch of business; especially, when these guards enlist themselves for the sake of the stipend, and have it in their power, in a short time, to gain a much larger sum, by assassinating a tyrant, than they would receive from the tyrant by many years faithful attendance.”

There is simplicity and neatness in this translation. The Treatise itself is valuable, and hitherto untranslated into English.—The author of the translation has also published various other translations, and is apprehensive of being exposed to the same kind of ridicule with Philemon Holland:

‘ Philemon with translations does so fill us,  
He will not let Suetonius be Tranquillus.’

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The Appendix contains a few useful notes, adapted to an English reader.

*The History of Herodotus. Translated from the Greek. With Notes subjoined. By J. Lempriere, A. B. Vol. I. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell. 1792.*

IN the first volume of our New Arrangement, Mr. Beloe's translation of Herodotus occurred: Mr. Lempriere's soon followed; but it was mislaid by accident, and accident alone, without any intentional disrespect, has occasioned our delay. In the volume referred to, we entered into a short defence of Herodotus, and introduced his history to the English reader; nor need we repeat the observations, to which our readers may readily refer. We shall therefore notice, without any farther preface, the rival translation before us.

Mr. Lempriere has already distinguished himself as an author in the department of classical knowledge. It is always with pain that we disapprove; but we cannot discover classical purity in the Introduction: the critic will neither consider Herodotus' authority as indisputable, nor approve of the *partial obscurity* of a learned language, the equivocal employment of the term *study*, the confusion of the metaphors in the same sentence, or the singular design of giving entertainment to those who court information.—But we must quote the whole passage:

'The dignified *rank* which Herodotus holds among the historians of antiquity, while it stamps his character of excellence and superiority, renders his pages interesting, and *his authority indisputable*; but if clothed in the *partial obscurity* of a learned language, he is accessible only to the critic, and the more classical members of society. It is the unavoidable lot of many, whom accident or laborious employments have deprived of the pleasures and the improvements of *study*, not to be able to *taste of the original* spring, or to discover the various beauties of the *natural landscape* which he has painted with so masterly a hand. Translation, indeed, lends her useful and well-directed assistance; and it is no unpleasing task to attempt to give *entertainment* to those who *court information*, and more universally to diffuse the name, and to publish the merits of an historian, whose works are not only the admiration of the learned, but prove a splendid pattern for others to imitate, and for posterity to applaud.'

The rest of the Preface is less exceptionable; but not wholly faultless as an English composition. Mr. Lempriere should surely have been more attentive in his first advances, and re-  
collect



collect that flowing language, while it amuses the ear, may be found inelegant and incorrect.

The Life of Herodotus is sufficiently full and copious; nor is it without the critical acumen, which some doubtful and disputed circumstances require. We shall select a passage, where the merits and the faults of the translator are conspicuous, and shall only add, that we could have wished the biographer of the Father of History had imbibed the ease, the simplicity, the polished elegance, and the purity of style, which he so justly praises, in the historian of Halicarnassus or Thuri-um :

‘ It is more properly the province of the critic, than of the biographer, to examine the writings, to praise the beauties, and to censure the faults of Herodotus. An illustrious character, like the proud towering mountain, exposed to the attack of storms and thunders, which are unfelt or unheard on the smaller eminences beneath, is often surrounded by malice and obloquy, which never alight on the groveling spirit. The generality of mankind envy the excellence which they cannot attain; and therefore, in the number of those who detracted his fame, the historian of Halicarnassus, must reckon, not only his contemporaries, but his more distant successors of the theatre of the Muses \*. The philosopher of Chæronea has felt the pretended insult offered to his countrymen, and boldly intitled the weapon of his vengeance, the malignity of Herodotus †; while others ‡ have more secretly betrayed their envy and their resentment, by listening to the whispers of suspicion, and to groundless reports. Yet impartiality must acknowledge, that sometimes the historian has shown himself credulous; though this puerility, which candour will

\* Porphyrus has accused (apud Euseb. præpar. evangel. 10, c. 3, p. 466. B) the historian of plagiarism, in borrowing from Hecataeus the description of the Phoenix, the Hippopotamus, &c.—A malevolent accusation, for it is not corroborated by Plutarch.

† This curious treatise of Plutarch was written to vindicate the character of the people of Chæronea, whom Herodotus was supposed to have unfairly represented as cowards. The whole has been refuted in a masterly manner, by the abbé Geinoz, in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres*, tome xix. p. 117, et seq.

‡ Josephus ranks Herodotus in the number of credulous and lying authors, (contra Ap. p. 1035, edit. Coln.)—and in another place, accuses him of ascribing to Sesostris what properly belonged to Sufacus. (Jud. Ant. q. 8, c. 4) —Strabo likewise speaks (l. p. 74.) of his fondness to relate fables. A more malicious report, however, is recorded by Dio Chrysostom, (Corinthiac. orat. 37, vol. ii. p. 103, edit. Reisk.) which represents the historian as relating to the Corinthians the account of the battle of Salamis, and demanding of them a reward for the distinguishing character he had assigned them in the description. The request was refused; and it is further said, that Herodotus changed the narrative, and painted the Corinthians in less honourable colours: a fact which, if proved, would totally destroy the reputation of the historian, and of the man. But how is it that the ever watchful cur of Chæronea has not mentioned a circumstance which would have given double sharpness to his satyr, and a better appearance to his malevolent treatise?

deem more the vice of the age than the propensity of the man, is never artfully concealed from the reader, or fabulous accounts intruded, as well attested facts. Herodotus fairly discovers his own; he distinguishes what he copies from others, or what he derives from tradition, with that anxious concern which disdains to impose upon the world \*: and time has already shown, that the seeming improbabilities which drew down upon him the censure and the animadversions of illiterate critics, have received strength and confirmation by the experiments and the researches of the moderns †.

Had a friendly eye overlooked these pages, '*the watchful cur of Chæroneæ*,' and some other faulty expressions, might have been expunged.

We quoted some of the first paragraphs of Mr. Beloe's translation ‡; and the fairest method of ascertaining the comparative merits of Mr. Lempriere, will be to select the same.

'CIIIO.—In the publication of these historical researches, it is the wish of Herodotus, of Halicarnassus, to preserve from oblivion, the most important events that have commanded the attention of mankind; to give to Grecian heroes, and Barbarian chiefs, the praises their great actions have deserved; and circumstantially to investigate the causes which kindled the flames of war between their respective nations.

'I. Such of the Persians as are distinguished for their knowledge of national history, represent the Phœnicians as the primary movers of these hostile commotions. Emerging from the borders of the Red Sea, the Phœnicians, according to the Persian records, visited the shores of the Mediterranean, and made a settlement in that part of the continent which is still occupied by their descendants. Navigation became here their study; and from the knowledge they acquired, and the connections they formed, in distant excursions by sea, they were soon enabled to pour the merchandizes of Egypt, and of Assyria, into the different ports of the world. The city of Argos, whose flourishing situation claimed, at that time, a decided superiority over all the states of that country, which is known among

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\* When he mentions, (lib. 4, c. 42.) that the circumnavigators of Africa saw the sun in the northern parts of the heavens, he is unwilling to believe an important discovery, which, however true, was neglected and disregarded till a more enlightened period.

† I would not encourage that diffidence in Herodotus, which has already been carried too far. Were I to give my opinion of him, having followed him through most of the countries which he visited, I would say that he is a writer of veracity in his description of what he saw, but of credulity in his relations of what he heard." Essay on the original Genus and Writings of Homer, &c. by Robert Wood—Dr. Shaw's Travels—and Dr. Pococke's Description of the East, with many others among the moderns, serve to corroborate the descriptions and details of the historian. The testimony of Boerhaave is, however, still more honourable: "*Hodierna*," says this judicious writer, (*Elementa Chymiz*, vol. i. p. 550.) "*observationes probant fere omnia magni viri dicta*."

‡ See Crit. Rev. vol. i. New Arrangement, p. 364.



us by the name of Greece, was in the number of those places that were visited by the Phœnician merchants. In one of these voyages, after they had exposed their commodities to sale with much success for five or six days, and already prepared to return homewards, a number of women came to the shore, among whom was the daughter of Inachus, king of the country, called Io by Persian as well as Grecian historians. These females had scarcely approached the ship, desirous of purchasing what most pleased their taste, when the Phœnicians, animating each other, rushed upon them, and violently seized their persons: the greatest part escaped from the hands of the ravishers; yet Io was in the number of the captives, and she saw herself immediately torn from her country, and carried towards the Egyptian coasts.

‘ II. This account of the rape of the daughter of Inachus, in which may be traced the origin of national enmity, though supported by Persian history, is refuted by the records of Greece. Some time after this, as the Persians relate, a number of Greeks, with whose name and country they declare themselves unacquainted, though they were suspected to be inhabitants of Crete, committed depredations on the coast of Tyre, in Phœnicia, and carried away Europa, the daughter of the monarch of the country. This act of violence was considered as a just retaliation; but if the Phœnicians were censured as the perpetrators of the first injury, the Greeks, according to the Persian historians, gave fresh causes of complaint, and were guilty of the second provocation. They sailed in a long ship to Cœa, a town of Colchis, situated on the Phasis; and after they had settled the affairs which were the immediate object of their voyage, they laid violent hands on Medea, the monarch's daughter, and carried her away. The insult was resented: an ambassador was immediately dispatched into Greece; and the king of Colchis not only insisted on the restitution of his daughter, but likewise on the punishment of her ravishers. The application was treated with disdain; and the Greeks answered, that as no reparation had been made for the violence offered to Io, so the king of Colchis could not in justice expect a different treatment.

‘ III. These acts of rapacity, committed with impunity, induced Alexander, the son of Priam, two generations after, to procure himself a wife from among the Grecian women; and therefore, shielded by the plea of precedence, he carried away the celebrated Helen. An embassy from the Greeks, to recover Helen, and to demand the punishment of Alexander, was the consequence of this rape; but the cold treatment which the servants of the king of Colchis had met in Greece, was repeated at the court of Priam, and the Trojans reprimanded the Greeks for urging claims for Helen, which they had rejected when advanced in favour of Medea.’

The freedom, the ease, and the flowing elegance of Mr.  
Lempriere's

Lempriere's translation are immediately conspicuous. The first great question which occurs is, whether the manner of a writer, if it can be transfused, in the version of his language, is worth preserving? The generality of our translators certainly think this an object of little consequence, for they seldom attend to it. In our opinion, however, it is of the utmost importance, and particularly as, in critical remarks, published in our own language, the styles of ancient authors is generally mentioned, either with commendation, or as example. We own too, that the simple dignity of the Father of History is in our eyes so attractive, that we see with some regret ornaments unsuitable, and unnatural.

It will be obvious also, from a very slight attention, that to a flowing period, accuracy is in some degree sacrificed. The first line is not a fair representation of the modest proemium: nothing is said of 'publication,' or of 'research.' 'The object of this historical attempt of Herodotus is, &c.' are the literal words. 'Circumstantially to investigate,' was neither the design, nor is it the language of Herodotus.—Again, the language of Mr. Lempriere would lead the unlearned reader to think, that the Persian history, and the Persian records, were as familiarly known as the history of the Tudors, or the Stuarts. At that period, it is highly *probable*, there were no Persian manuscripts: it is *certain* that Herodotus was unacquainted with them, for his Persian names always terminate most improperly in *s*. Would the English reader suppose, that, in the first and second section, if we allow *λογιστοὶ Περσέων*, the learned Persians, instead of *λογοὶ Περσέων*—Persian reports, the Persians are mentioned twice only, and then with the words *φασὶ* and *λεγουσὶ*—'they say'—that, in at least three passages in these two sections, Persian records, and Persian history, are introduced without any authority? Surely, in these instances, elegant language is too dearly purchased. In subsequent passages, the Persians 'say,' 'deny,' 'confess,' 'remark;'—but, in no instance, is a single record, a single historian, a single authority, mentioned.

In fact, we think the flowing version of Mr. Lempriere more pleasing than the more simple and concise periods of Mr. Beloe; but to this are sacrificed the manner of Herodotus, and, in many instances, minute accuracy. From a comparison of different parts, we find no essential errors, no very important misrepresentations.—The faults are those which we have pointed out; and the reader, that can pardon them, will receive pleasure and information from the work.—As our article has been delayed, we expected to have heard of the subsequent volumes; but they have not yet, we believe, appeared. When they are published, with the copious notes and illustrations



illustrations our translator has promised, we shall return to the subject, and examine the translation with more minute accuracy.

*A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster, on Thursday, January 30, 1794, being the Anniversary of the Martyrdom of King Charles the First. By Edward, Lord Bishop of Carlisle. 4to. 1s. Faulder. 1794.*

**T**RITE as this subject is in itself, there is sufficient novelty in his lordship's manner of treating it, to interest a less accommodating audience \*. In tracing the origin of the evils that led to the unhappy catastrophe of the day, the right rev. preacher asserts,—

‘ It is not to be denied, that in that unhappy period, the causes of alarm to the nation were many and well grounded: that the encroachments of the prerogative had been, in many particulars, such as it was right and necessary to oppose and to repress: still less is it to be denied, that many who first opposed these encroachments were real lovers of their country, and grave, conscientious, and thinking men, seeking for that redress only, and those remedies which might be attained by means already known and authorised, and by the power of law.’

And though it be truly added by his lordship,—

‘ But there were others who acted on very different ideas; who from the beginning insinuated, and in no long time were bold enough openly to declare, that the means of redress already known and authorised were feeble and insufficient: that new expedients must be found, and new powers assumed: and that the constitution, inadequate, as it was said, to secure the liberty of the subject, must be modelled and formed anew:’—

The consequence thence most obvious is unfortunately overlooked. For what is it but this: that if those intrusted with the constitutional powers of government abuse and pervert them, they are not only chargeable with the guilt of their own misconduct, but also with the mischiefs that may ensue from the interference of such as maintain that the known and authorised means of redress being feeble and insufficient, new expedients must be found, and the constitution new-modelled. Much then as we have to deprecate from the agents to be in-

\* Whoever be the preacher, or whatever the doctrine, we believe it is the invariable practice of the house of lords to vote thanks for the sermons preached before it.

roduced for this purpose, which his lordship most justly styles 'of all others the most terrible,—the passions and the unbridled will of the multitude at large;' yet they who, in the first instance, supercede the constitution, are certainly the instigators of them. But, though from his lordship's premises we have looked in vain for that pertinent and momentous warning to those invested with the executive power; we have, however, its counterpart, and very properly applied.

'Would to God that these reflections might be permitted to stop here! would to God, that we had no examples to refer to, but those which have had place among ourselves! There is no pleasure to a generous mind, in dwelling upon the calamities of others. But it is not possible, when the providence of God hath permitted an example to arise more striking still and more terrible than our own—it is not possible that we should close our eyes against it: it would not even be right that we should attempt to do so.—“When the judgments of God, saith the Prophet, are in the earth, the inhabitants of the world will learn righteousness.” And if the miseries which our fathers were doomed to suffer have not yet been sufficient to teach us righteousness and wisdom, let us, at least, learn those lessons from the still more dreadful miseries of our neighbours.

'Only let there be no attempt to practise deceit and imposition upon ourselves. It will then be our first wisdom to see and to acknowledge, that the foundations of the calamity have in both cases a near resemblance to each other. In both cases, there were real grievances to be complained of: in both cases, there was a hasty subversion of the established government, before men were at all agreed, as to that which should be substituted in its stead; and in both cases also, there was a want of that prudence, which might have calculated before-hand the force of those new powers which were about to be created and set in motion, when the multitude should be once emancipated from the control to which it had been before accustomed.'

In reference to the calamities that desolate France, as originating from the causes before pointed out, his lordship concludes with sentiments, far different, indeed, from those which had recently been sounded upon the same occasion and from the same pulpit; but which, nevertheless, most perfectly accord with the best feelings of a man and a Christian.

'Miserable and afflicted people!—For ourselves, let us bow before our God with humility and fear: let us thank Him, that we of this nation were once recovered from the wanderings of our hearts, and beg devoutly, that he would never punish us by a renewal of those delusions, or suffer us to be again so tempted. For them,—though in their fury they have, indeed, attempted to kindle among us also those flames of discord which have consumed their land, and



to involve us in the same guilt and misery with themselves—yet even so, even whilst we are compelled, in defence of all that is dear and precious to us, to unsheath the sword, and to seek for our security in war, because in war only it could be found,—still let them know, that the religion which they have rejected, and the Saviour whom they have defied, have taught us even now to pray for their happiness and peace.’

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*Works of the late Dr. Benjamin Franklin: consisting of his Life, written by Himself; together with Essays, Humorous, Moral, and Literary, chiefly in the Manner of the Spectator. (Concluded from Vol. VIII. New. Arr. p. 369.)*

UPON whatever topic Dr. Franklin employed his pen, he had always the art of rendering it interesting; and, at the same time it is but justice to add, that he generally chose the most useful and important subjects. The second volume of this publication, therefore, contains an excellent and instructive collection of essays, which may be entitled the moral works of Dr. Franklin.

From essays so generally excellent, there is little room for selection.—We shall, however, present our readers with two specimens.

‘NECESSARY HINTS TO THOSE THAT WOULD BE RICH. Written Anno 1736.

‘The use of money is all the advantage there is in having money.

‘For six pounds a year you may have the use of one hundred pounds, provided you are a man of known prudence and honesty.

‘He that spends a groat a day idly, spends idly above six pounds a year, which is the price for the use of one hundred pounds.

‘He that wastes idly a groat’s worth of his time per day, one day with another, wastes the privilege of using one hundred pounds each day.

‘He that idly loses five shillings worth of time, loses five shillings, and might as prudently throw five shillings into the sea.

‘He that loses five shillings, not only loses that sum, but all the advantage that might be made by turning it in dealing, which, by the time that a young man becomes old, will amount to a considerable sum of money.

‘Again: he that sells upon credit, asks a price for what he sells, equivalent to the principal and interest of his money for the time he is to be kept out of it; therefore, he that buys upon credit, pays interest for what he buys; and he that pays ready money, might let that money out to use: so that he that possesses any thing he has bought, pays interest for the use of it.

‘Yet, in buying goods, it is best to pay ready money, because,  
C. R. N. ARR. (XI.) Aug. 1794. H h he

he that sells upon credit, expects to lose five per cent. by bad debts ; therefore he charges, on all he sells upon credit, an advance that shall make up that deficiency.

‘ Those who pay for what they buy upon credit, pay their share of this advance.

‘ He that pays ready money, escapes, or may escape, that charge.

“ A penny fav’d is two-pence clear ;  
A pin a day ’s a groat a year.”

#### ‘ ON THE IMPRESS OF SEAMEN.

‘ Notes copied from Dr. Franklin’s writing in pencil in the margin of Judge Foster’s celebrated argument in favour of the Impressing of Seamen (published in the folio edition of his works).

‘ Judge Foster, p. 158. “ Every man.”—The conclusion here from the *whole to a part*, does not seem to be good logic. If the alphabet should say, Let us all fight for the defence of the whole ; that is equal, and may, therefore, be just. But if they should say, Let A B C and D go out and fight for us, while we stay at home and sleep in whole skins ; that is not equal, and, therefore, cannot be just.

‘ *Ib.* “ Employ.”—If you please. The word signifies engaging a man to work for me, by offering him such wages as are sufficient to induce him to prefer my service. This is very different from compelling him to work on such terms as I think proper.

‘ *Ib.* “ This service and employment, &c.”—These are false facts. His employments and service are not the same.—Under the merchant he goes in an unarmed vessel, not obliged to fight, but to transport merchandize. In the king’s service he is obliged to fight, and to hazard all the dangers of battle. Sicknefs on board of king’s ships is also more common and more mortal. The merchant’s service too he can quit at the end of the voyage ; not the king’s. Also, the merchant’s wages are much higher.

‘ *Ib.* “ I am very sensible, &c.”—Here are two things put in comparison that are not comparable : viz. injury to seamen, and inconvenience to trade. Inconvenience to the whole trade of a nation will not justify injustice to a single seaman. If the trade would suffer without his service, it is able and ought to be willing to offer him such wages as may induce him to afford his service voluntarily.

‘ Page 159. “ Private mischief must be borne with patience, for preventing a national calamity.”—Where is this maxim in law and good policy to be found ? And how that can be a maxim which is not consistent with common sense ? If the maxim had been, that private mischiefs, which prevent a national calamity, ought to be generously compensated by the nation, one might understand it ;  
but



but that such private mischiefs are only to be borne with patience, is absurd!

' *Ib.* "The expedient, &c. And, &c." (Paragraphs 2 and 3).—Twenty ineffectual or inconvenient schemes will not justify one that is unjust.

' *Ib.* "Upon the foot of, &c."—Your reasoning, indeed, like a lie, stands but upon one *foot*; truth upon two.

' Page 160. "Full wages."—Probably the same they had in the merchant's service.

' Page 174. "I hardly admit, &c." (Paragraph 5).—When this author speaks of impressing, page 158, he diminishes the horror of the practice as much as possible, by presenting to the mind one sailor only suffering a "*hardship*" (as he tenderly calls it) in some "*particular cases*" only; and he places against this private mischief the inconvenience to the trade of the kingdom.—But if, as he supposes is often the case, the sailor who is pressed, and obliged to serve for the defence of trade, at the rate of twenty-five shillings a month, could get three pounds fifteen shillings in the merchant's service, you take from him fifty shillings a month; and if you have a 100,000 in your service, you rob this honest industrious part of society and their poor families of 250,000*l.* per month, or three millions a year, and at the same time oblige them to hazard their lives in fighting for the defence of your trade; to the defence of which all ought, indeed, to contribute (and sailors among the rest) in proportion to their profits by it: but this three millions is more than their share, if they did not pay with their persons; but when you force that, methinks you should excuse the other.

' But it may be said, to give the king's seamen merchants' wages, would cost the nation too much, and call for more taxes. The question then will amount to this: whether it be just in a community, that the richer part should compel the poorer to fight in defence of them and their properties, for such wages as they think fit to allow, and punish them if they refuse? Our author tells us that it is "*legal*." I have not law enough to dispute his authorities, but I cannot persuade myself that it is equitable. I will, however, own for the present, that it may be lawful when necessary; but then I contend that it may be used so as to produce the same good effects—the *public security*, without doing so much intolerable injustice as attends the impressing common seamen.—In order to be better understood, I would premise two things: First, that voluntary seamen may be had for the service, if they were sufficiently paid. The proof is, that to serve in the same ship, and incur the same dangers, you have no occasion to impress captains, lieutenants, second lieutenants, midshipmen, pursers, nor many other officers. Why, but that the profits of their places, or the emoluments expected, are sufficient inducements? The business then is, to find money, by impressing, sufficient to make the sailors all volunteers, as well as their officers;

and this without any fresh burthen upon trade.—The second of my premises is, that twenty-five shillings a month, with his share of the salt beef, pork, and peas-pudding, being found sufficient for the subsistence of a hard working seaman, it will certainly be so for a sedentary scholar or gentleman. I would then propose to form a treasury, out of which encouragements to seamen should be paid. To fill this treasury, I would impress a number of civil officers, who at present have great salaries, oblige them to serve in their respective offices for twenty-five shillings a month, with their shares of mess provisions, and throw the rest of their salaries into the seamen's treasury. If such a press-warrant were given me to execute, the first I would press should be a recorder of Bristol, or a Mr. justice Foster, because I might have need of his edifying example, to show how much impressing ought to be borne with; for he would certainly find, that though to be reduced to twenty-five shillings a month might be a "*private mischief*," yet that, agreeably to his maxim of law and good policy, it "*ought to be borne with patience*," for preventing a national calamity. Then I would press the rest of the judges; and, opening the red book, I would press every civil officer of government, from 50l. a year salary, up to 50,000l. which would throw an immense sum into our treasury: and these gentlemen could not complain, since they would receive twenty-five shillings a month, and their rations; and this without being obliged to fight. Lastly, I think I would impress \*\*\*.

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*An Agricultural Dictionary, consisting of Extracts from the most celebrated Authors and Papers. By John Monk, (late 19th Light Dragoons,) of Bears Combe, near Kingsbridge, Devon. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. White. 1794.*

**T**HIS gentleman, who has happily converted the sword into a ploughshare, has arranged his compilation (for he aims not at originality) with skill and judgment, so as to render his Dictionary a useful work composed of many good materials, as he has extracted them from the best modern works, and largely from Young's Annals of Agriculture.

All that can be required in a review of this work, is to quote a few passages, and to insert a few remarks.

Had we room we would make a large quotation from the beginning of the first volume, concerning Mr. Duckitt's husbandry, under the article *Agriculture*: we will, however, transcribe the three first pages:

‘ AGRICULTURE, BY MR. DUCKITT.

‘ But now for the prince of farmers, Mr. Duckitt, of Esher-place. In April, 1788, I visited his farm, in company with Messrs. Young and



and Macro; but not having time enough then to make all the observations I wished, I visited it again in July following.

‘ Mr. Duckitt’s farm is the most complete, and kept in the cleanest and best order, of any I ever saw. He ploughs his lands into beds wide enough to contain nine or ten rows of the crop sown in it, at nine inches asunder, for the most part. His farm at Esler is about 500 acres, of which nearly 400 are arable. The land is mostly sand on a gravel bottom; but some of it clayey, and most part of it heavy enough for beans, at least for the smaller sort, tick, or horse-beans.

‘ He drills, on his beds of nine or ten rows,

Wheat,	}	at nine inches asunder.
Barley,		
Oats,		
Rye,		
Barley and Clover,		
Tares, or vetches,	}	at eleven inches asunder.
Oats and tares,		
Rye and tares,		
Pease and turnips,		
Beans, at eighteen inches asunder.		

‘ After his ground is well prepared by ploughing, he makes five channels or drills with a drill-plough, with as many shares and broad-boards; then his dropping machine follows, and sheds five rows of seeds, which are covered by an harrow. When the crop is high enough for the purpose, he has two horse-hoes, which hoe five alleys or intervals apiece, and have each a man to hold and guide them. They work one on each side of the furrow, which divides the beds, into which the field is thrown; of course, hoeing at once five rows on each bed, or two half beds. The horse is led in the furrow by a boy, and by the help of a long whipple-tree, draws both the horsehoes, which completely hoe the ten alleys. When the land is more than ordinarily dry and hard, two horses are necessary for the work. But, wet or dry, no injury is thereby done to the crop, the horses always going in the furrow. He has some horse-hoes with six shares, each of course hoeing six alleys at a time.

‘ On Mr. Duckitt’s first invention of his horse-hoes, he thought the work would be more regularly and completely effected, if the men who guided the horse-hoes drew them going backward, between the hoes and the draught, which was certainly placing the men in a dangerous situation, in case the horses should become refractory, and uncontrollable by the boy who led them. This was observed by the king, who has several times been pleased to honour this farm with a royal visit; and his majesty very humanely, and with great condescension, having communicated his idea to a son of Mr. Duckitt’s, the father, in compliance with his majesty’s benevolent de-

sign, has made other horse-hoes, which are held by men, who go safely behind the machines.'

The '*chicorium intybus*, succory,' or chicory, seems to be a very interesting new plant in agriculture, of which Mr. May, a practitioner in husbandry, writes thus:

'I find chicory to be the best plant I have yet seen on poor dry soils for sheep feed. Notwithstanding it is a luxuriant plant, it does not exhaust the land; nor does it suffer from dry weather, like unto sainfoin or burnet; and I have particularly observed it to grow seven inches in three weeks, whilst those two plants, on the same soil, in the same field, as near together as possible, have grown no more than four inches.'

A gentleman in one of the southern counties of England, an excellent husbandman, and an acquaintance of the writer of this article, now cultivates chicory, and finds it to be an extraordinary plant, growing to the height of six or seven feet, on poor, dry ground, which so much surprised his neighbours, and others, that persons sent to him for the seed to a great distance.

The same gentleman has also found gypsum, which is mentioned by Mr. Monk, under the article *Manure*, of remarkable benefit to various grasses.

Of lime Mr. Arthur Young (as mentioned, vol. II. p. 160 of the Dictionary) says that the 'vilest husbandry will not reduce land to a *caput mortuum*, unless lime is used.' Though this is a pretty common opinion, we believe it from experience to be imaginary, and that ten times the usual quantity per acre would not destroy soils in general, but benefit many kinds, and that it does not act merely as a stimulus, but is often virtually beneficial. It is serviceable to sandy soils, and would probably be beneficial even to nearly all light soils, were it not laid on till become battery with rain.

Mr. Monk has passed over *fallow*, without inserting any papers on that subject, though the controversy between Mr. Arthur Young, and Mr. White, and a number of papers in the *Annals of Agriculture*, &c. afforded ample materials.

*Hops* also he passes over; an omission, though rather local, of great magnitude to some counties in particular.

Two volumes of this useful work are now published, and Mr. Monk hoped to be able to complete the third and last by the beginning of September, 1794, to which the subscribers, and purchasers of the two first will be intitled gratis.



*The Course of Hannibal over the Alps ascertained.* By John Whitaker, B. D. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Stockdale. 1794.

**A**FTER the many verbose publications of Mr. Whitaker the history of Manchester in two vast volumes 4to. and yet only extended to the eighth century; the vindication of Mary in three 8vos, while Robertson's charge only makes an article in an Appendix; we are not surprised at the present bulky publication, on a subject which might fitly have been discussed in a pamphlet. Learning and ingenuity our author certainly possesses; but that radical principle never to be acquired, and in itself worth all the sciences, that invaluable quality called good sense, is unfortunately wanting. A vivacious imagination, a native warmth of temper, quite overpower cool judgment: and we must regret to see a writer, who, in the departments of novel or romance, might have aspired to lasting reputation, wasting his time and talents in building historical hypotheses, which amuse the public for a season, and are then forgotten.

The vague and digressive plan of the present work, in which the embarrassing march of Hannibal is rendered more fatiguing by numerous deviations, summoned all our attention to comprehend our author's design and arguments. Who would expect to find repeated invectives against the French revolution, in a work of this nature? Yet such there are; and conveyed in a tone of such *fury*, as to be rendered, if possible, yet more absurd from their manner, than from their position: and in a mere literary work, written by a clergyman, we are disgusted with a vehement malignity, unworthy of the placid intelligence of the scholar, disgraceful to the meek temper of a Christian.

The want of a map yet further embarrasses Mr. Whitaker's research; though, in truth, a good map, with a few explanations, would have more clearly authenticated his design, than the present compilation.

The marrow of this vast work, if we rightly comprehend it amidst its erratic excursions, is, that Hannibal passed the Rhone at Lauriol, and pursued the river to Lyons. From this place, according to most antiquaries, he proceeded in his march to the Alps, which he passed by mount Cenis, the usual route into Italy. But this idea is not sufficiently sublime for Mr. Whitaker's warm imagination, which conducts Hannibal up towards the springs of the Rhone, and over the Alps by Great St. Bernard, the passage from Switzerland. Of all the opinions hitherto advanced, this must be allowed to be, on the first glance, the most improbable; yet we pretend not to say

that it is absolutely erroneous; for we well remember that, even in the time of Livy, there were various opinions on the subject, as that great historian commemorates; and what could not be decided seventeen centuries ago, we despair of seeing adjusted now, after a further loss of the original evidence. Livy does not explicitly point out the route; but he specially rejects \* the opinion that Hannibal passed by the Mons Pœninus; and as he was himself a native and inhabitant of Cisalpine Gaul, and master of every possible information on the subject, it is mere rashness in a modern to combat his authority. Yet unfortunately this is the very route Mr. Whitaker has chosen! Nor is it possible to avoid a smile where we perceive our warm author, when he meets with passages of Polybius or Livy which contradict his hypothesis, gravely attacking, and pretending to *confute* those venerable writers!

The plan of the present dissertation ought to have been this. Translations of all the original authorities ought to have been given in chronological order: then the remarks should have briefly pointed out the circumstances in which all agreed, and afterwards discussed the differences. In this clear and comprehensive manner, the reader must have attained a complete view of the subject at once, instead of wading through a morass in search of solid patches of land.

We now resume the volumes, in order to consider some particular passages.

The first edition of Simler's description of Vallais and the Alps, of which Mr. Whitaker attempts, vol. I. p. 17, to settle the date, and ascribes it to 1567, now lies before us. It is printed at Zurich by Froschover in 1574; and the dedication by Simler to the bishop of Sion, is dated Tiguri, 5 Idus Augusti, 1574. It is surprising that Scheuchzer's curious *Iter Alpinum*, in three quarto volumes, should be quite unknown to our author.

Amidst a long and useless digression concerning Lyons, we find an impertinent note, p. 55, on the porcelain of the ancients; and Mr. Whitaker decides that the *pocula murrhina* were porcelain. We leave to the learned reader to decide if the following words of Pliny, which he quotes, can apply to porcelain. 'Subinde circumagentibus se maculis in purpuram candoremque, et tertiam ex utroque ignescentem, velut per transitum coloris purpura rubescente, aut lacte candescente †.' This description can only apply to a species of agate, or other semitransparent stone; an idea fully confirmed by Pliny's ac-

\* Lib. xxi. cap. 38.

† Pliny, xxxvii, 2, says they were found in Parthia, and Carmania; 'humorem putant sub terra calore densari.' Porcelain!



count that the pocula murrhina et crystallina (lib. 33, proem.) were equally dug out of the earth. So constantly delusive is Mr. Whitaker's imagination.

What is all this to the march of Hannibal? But how avoid wandering with such a guide?

In p. 73, Mr. Whitaker appears as a politician, and, amidst a vehement invective against the French revolution, mentions the ancient Romans, and the modern Poles, as living under POPULAR governments. A stranger mistake we never witnessed; for the government of Rome and of Poland was aristocratic, the exact reverse of that of the people. But, to alter a little a saying of the great Condé, *Voilà enfin Monsieur Hannibal, et Messieurs les Alpes!*

Thus successful in his progress, Hannibal set out again towards the Alps. But what course did he now pursue thither? Did he now alter the route which he had taken before; turn suddenly on his right from Lyons, and direct his march to those Alps, from which he had turned away on his left before? Folard, who wildly takes Hannibal up towards Lyons as far only as Romans on the Isère, in order to lead him, by a sudden turn on the right, over Mount Genève; now carries him to Mount Genève accordingly. But M. de St. Simon, who brings him up to Vienne, more wildly (if we can talk of greater or lesser wildness, where both are extravagantly wild) puts him back—to his point of passage over the Rhone; bringing him up betwixt Romans and Grenoble to Vienne, and then putting him back by Tein, by Valence, and by Montelimar; in order to make him commence, where he should have commenced before, his outset for the Cottian Alps. Or did Hannibal now turn on his right, in order to reach a more northerly part of these French Alps, and to pass them by the road of Little St. Bernard? This is the course, which he is supposed by several to have pursued; particularly by Mr. Breval, the most knowing and intelligent of all our English travellers; and by that dignified officer of our army, who went over the Alps in order to trace the footsteps of the Carthaginian hero upon them. "From what has been said by Polybius," argues Mr. Breval, "concerning Hannibal's passing the Rhone at Lyons," he should have said, concerning his coming up the Rhone to Lyons, after his passage over it below; "and his entering Italy by the country of the Insubri [Insubres], which is the present Milanese; it will follow, that he took the road of Chamberri, the Petit St. Bernard, and the Valé of Aosta." In a note he adds, that the Petit St. Bernard "was part of the Alps, called Pœninæ from the march of the Carthaginians." Accordingly "we are still more inclined in our days," adds St. Simon, "to maintain that Hannibal passed by Little St. Bernard; since we have been assured, that all the bones of an elephant were discovered upon this mountain." I understand too from some letters, with which the general has favoured me; and  
from

from a large map of the Alps, which he has communicated to me, after he had delineated the course, and set down observations with his own hand upon it; that he carries Hannibal from Lyons across Dauphiny, enters the Alps with him by a steep and rugged gully, in which are still visible the remains of an ancient road, and a little to the south of which is the modern entrance for Mount Cenis, called Les Eschelles. He thence conducts him along the vale, between high hills and up the river Yere, to the plain where Chamberry now stands; over it, and by St. Joire, to the vale of the river Isere near Montmelian. He then brings him up along its right bank, to the grand bend of the Isere on the right, and to Conflans upon it; along the trough of the Isere still, by La Roche Sevin, Faillon, Monstier, Ayme, St. Maurice, and Sext, to the foot of Little St. Bernard; up its western side, through a long, steep, and rugged gully, to the right of a rapid current without a name, but close on the left of a hill called Roche Blanche, near the bottom of the ascent, by the entrance into the gully, and at the village of Les Villars; so to the summit of Little St. Bernard, the gorge or pass of which is wide and long enough to contain Hannibal's army closely encamped.

‘Mr. Breval, as we see above, carries the Carthaginians from Little St. Bernard down the vale of Aosta. In the same line does the general also conduct them. On the top of Little St. Bernard, he observes, is a small lake which gives rise to a river, that at the village of Hauteville, vulgarly and erroneously called Tuille, is joined by a brook. Over this brook, as well as the general recollects, the road goes down to Tuille, a small distance below, over a very high and narrow bridge. A few hundred yards beyond the junction of this brook with the river, is such a narrow path on the steep side of a loose and rocky hill, as is liable to be washed away by falling rains or melting snows, or even to be beat down by balls of snow; and as well corresponds, in the general's opinion, with the broken road that interrupted Hannibal's march. When the general passed it in the end of September 1775, it had been repaired in some places by long pine-trees, laid length-wise, and planed along their upper sides. Over these, he, his servant, and his mules were obliged to pass; and he was told by his mule-driver, that this was the worst part of the Alps, and that the inhabitants were forced to repair it every year. The road appears from the maps, to reach the river of Little St. Bernard, just below the fall of a brook into it, to cross the river, make a circuit round a village, re-cross the river, make an equal circuit upon the other bank, cross the river again, make a third circuit, and finally re-cross the river for St. Didier. In the ascent to St. Didier, therefore, I suppose that dangerous pass to be; which the general's memory is obliged to fix so indefinitely at present, as to place it “a few hundred yards” below the union of the river and the brook. He thence comes down by Morges, La Sala, Derbe, Avise, and



and Livrogne, to Aosta; passes through its long and winding valley, by Verrex to Ivrea; and there turns on the right to the capital of the Taurini, Turin.

' This route, so particularly *stepped out* by the general, certainly bears very strong marks of probability upon the face of it. But, what adds to the probability, this very route was pursued by the contending armies of the French and the allies, in the war of our queen Anne. In 1709, the latter sent their main body over mount Cenis; while a small corps drew near by the valley of Aosta to Little St. Bernard, ascended, and passed over it. The whole army retreated afterwards, partly by mount Cenis, and partly by Little St. Bernard. In 1711 they crossed mount Cenis again, in order to make the French quit the Tarentaise; and to assist such of their own forces, as were to pass by Little St. Bernard. They even advanced at last, very near to Montmelian. But, as *they were obliged to follow the course of the Isere*, the cannons, which the French had planted at La Chavane, did some damage to their columns. They sent parties, however, to take possession of Chamberry; and all their *cavalry* encamped there. But they were at length compelled to retreat, and all passed back by Little St. Bernard. Such a practised road has this been, to our modern armies!'

The general here mentioned is general Melville, a soldier and a scholar, whose opinion we esteem the most probable, though Mr. Whitaker completely dissents from it.

' All seems to shew us with a plenitude of evidence, that Hannibal did not leave the Rhone at his passage across it, in order to go by mount Genève or mount Cenis into Italy; that he did not leave it even at Lyons, in order to cross over Little St. Bernard thither; that, in his march *from* Lyons, he did just as he had done in his march *to* it before, and kept close to the banks of the Rhone in both; that in both he pursued one and the same plan of movements, completing in the latter what he had begun in the former; that he mounted up near the very rise of the Rhone, that there he ascended the Alps, and thence he penetrated into Italy. All the various suppositions, therefore, of his marching over any part of that great barrier of hills, which flanks the *western* side of North Italy, vanish into air at once, like so many mists, before the strong luster of this historical sun. Hannibal reached the mountains, at a very different point. Hannibal entered them, in a very different direction. He went not from west to east along them, but traversed them from north to south, and actually *intersected* all the lines of his supposed movements.'

As a risible specimen of our author's manner of handling the classics, we shall transcribe a note from vol. i. p. 122.

† Among the fragments of a general history by Sallust, we find a letter

letter from Pompey to the senate, which has been accidentally preserved by Nonius, and seems to contradict this. In it, Pompey is made to write thus: "per eas [Alpes] iter *aliud* atque Hannibal nobis opportunius patefeci" (Sallustii Opera Omnia, Glasgow, 1777, p. 278). But the sentence, as it now stands, is contradictory at once to Appian and to itself. It speaks of a road as made more wide and more commodious, yet does not notice positively what road this was. It notices the road only negatively, as *different from* Hannibal's. It thus speaks of the road as an unknown one, even while it intimates the road to have been made *more* wide and *more* commodious. Such contradictoriness neither Pompey, nor any man of common sense, could admit in a mere recital of facts done by the relator. The words therefore, we are sure, should be such as reconcile Pompey with himself and with Appian. A single word does this: "per eas *idem* atque Hannibal nobis opportunius patefeci." Pompey then says with Appian, that he pursued the course of Hannibal over the Alps; that he widened it, which is what Appian means by his *εξαπλασσειν*, or "formed;" and that he thus rendered it more convenient for the Romans. With such a double congruity in the new reading, we cannot hesitate a moment in adopting it.

Bravissimo! But Mr. Whitaker's chief talent lies in altering *aliud* to *idem*.

Livy says that Hannibal, in proceeding to the Alps, from Lyons, turned into the country of the Tricastini, a tribe fixed, by the modern name Tricastin, to the region on the Rhone, opposite Viviers; and that he thence went by the extreme border of the Vocontii. This explicitly evinces that the Carthaginian went to the south, whereas Mr. Whitaker must have him go north. But how does he get rid of this solemn testimony? By supposing, in defiance of all geography and common sense, that both these tribes lay in stripes, or *broids*, (p. 129, 131), like a Highland plaid; and that the Rhone was the *northern* frontier of both! Thus the Sigelauni and Allobroges\* are annihilated to make room for an hypothesis; and nations must be turned into stripes, because Mr. Whitaker commands Hannibal to go by Switzerland, as the nearest way from Spain into Italy.

In some quotations from Saussure (and Mr. Whitaker has enlarged his book by frequent passages from Alpine travellers), our author is so unfair, p. 142, as to translate the words, 'vouloit permettre la navigation de l'Arve,' and 'en permettant la navigation de l'Arve,' thus, 'would permit the Arve to be rendered navigable' — 'by permitting the Arve to be made navigable:' whereas the plain sense is, that the Genevans do not

\* See the *Geographie Ancienne* of D'Anville; or the excellent translation, with improvements, London, 1791, 2 vols. 8vo.



permit the navigation of the Arve, because it might interfere with that of the Rhone. And what is the use of this vitiation? Because Mr. Whitaker wants to serve his hypothesis, by proving that the Arve is not navigable! But neither ancients, nor moderns, Greeks, Latins, nor French, are safe from his torrid imagination.

Our author is well known as a successful Celtic etymologist, and many a treat of this sort a reader who is fond of syllabub may here find. Take the following specimen:

‘Those who were called *Celtæ* in the days of Polybius, and *Ar-dyes Celtæ*, as *Mountaineers*, were afterwards called *Helvetii* as *Celtæ*. *Galli*, *Galatæ*, *Gallitæ*, *Celtæ*, and *Called-ones*, *Walli*, *Fael*, *Allo-broges*, and *Helvet-ii*, are all the same appellatives, altered merely by provincialities of pronunciation and diversities of termination.’

In vol. i. p. 170, Mr. Whitaker grievously laments that Polybius, in describing the march of Hannibal from Lyons to the Alps, should overleap SIXTY miles. In plain truth, these sixty miles are a part of Mr. Whitaker's march only, and quite unknown to Hannibal or Polybius. A judicious author would, from this circumstance alone, have abandoned the hypothesis; but no march is too long for Mr. Whitaker, and we only regret that we are obliged to be his elephants.

What occasion was there for Mr. Whitaker to tell us, p. 201, that he is a hen-pecked husband? Is this a part of Hannibal's march?

‘This is highly to the honour of the sex; and I recommend the example to my married and unmarried countrymen. A Martigny wife, surely, cannot be a better governor than a British one. I shall therefore be glad to see the husbands of Britain, like those of Martigny, all governed by their wives, and all happy under their government. Nor is my recommendation founded entirely upon speculation. Experience has added her important sanction. Who then can dispute the doctrine? Who will not make the experiment?’

Among the casual objections to Mr. Whitaker's scheme, which his own work supplies in profusion, may be ranked the numerous hamlets, found by Hannibal on that part of the Alps which he passed; a circumstance only possible in the milder climate of the southern Alps. Yet our author exclaims with wonder at his own imagination, p. 234, ‘so thick set with towns does this supposed wilderness of the Alps appear at present!’ An expression in which the grammar, we suppose, is specially adapted to the sense. For Mr. Whitaker is speaking of the ancient hamlets of the Seduni.

With the true courage of Hannibal, Mr. Whitaker attacks  
ancients

ancients and moderns; but perhaps the verbal critic may think we wrote Cannibal, when he peruses the following atrocity:

'Yet, to my astonishment, I find a prelate; whom I have been long in the habit of respecting as a sound scholar; whatever I may think or suspect of him as a divine, proving himself most heretically erroneous in an allusion to this passage. In his Discourse to the Clergy, bishop Watson speaks of "the *olive* branch being a signal of peace, not only among Greek and Romans, but likewise amongst the *Alpine nations*, who met Hannibal on his passage," (see his Sermons and Tracts, 1788, p. 214). The prelate, it seems, reads Polybius, not with his own eyes, but with the eyes of Casaubon. He examines only *one* column in the page of Polybius. He honours the *Latin* to the rejection of the *Greek*. If it is *thus* he reads the fathers and the Scriptures, he *may* be all that the sharpest suspiciousness of orthodoxy has surmised him to be, all that is most unworthy of a scholar, and all that is most indecent in a bishop.'

To a warm imagination, and a singular vehemence of temper, Mr. Whitaker thus superadds the genuine *odium ecclesiasticum*.

But where is the march of Hannibal? Mr. Whitaker, in p. 248, gives us a long note on potatoes; not that they were known to Hannibal, gentle reader, but to prove that they were known in England long before Raleigh's time; which is, indeed, evinced from Harrison, who wrote in 1579: but he specially says that they were brought from Spain\*. So the potatoes are where they were: but where is Hannibal?

'Livy's testimony against the passage of Hannibal over the Penine Alps, has been frequently appealed to with an air of triumph, by those who feel their weakness too sensibly to walk upon their own legs, and are therefore obliged to hobble on the crutches of authority. These form the multitude of readers, even of writers too; and, with all such, the appeal is very natural. Who is so likely to know the route that Hannibal did or did not take, as his own historian, as the general historian of the Romans too, as a Roman living only two centuries afterward, as a writer of the first credit and dignity in the empire of history? Such are the strong reasons, that have induced all ages of literary inquiry, implicitly to

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\* Mr. W. has imagination to confound, but not judgment to discriminate. This potatoe, imported from Spain, and used with eryngo roots as a provocative, was the *convolvulus batatas*, a plant brought from South America to Spain, where, and in Portugal, it is cultivated for the table; but will grow in no other country in Europe. Rozin Apperço des Plantes Usuelles, art. *Micbas-canna*. The common potatoe is with great justice believed to have been first imported by Sir Walter Raleigh, from some district of America; or at least extended to general cultivation by him.



receive the attestation of Livy, and eagerly to repel Hannibal from Great St. Bernard! But with those who can examine the evidence of facts, who dare to think with even a Livy against them, and even presume to call a Livy himself, that monarch in history, to the bar of their literary republicanism; the assertions of Livy will have only the weight of his reasons. Merely as *these* are of moment, will *those* be considered of importance. Yet no petulance of criticism should be shown to such an author. The monarch should be revered, when the man is tried. The authority of Livy, indeed, should be considered as ever respectable in itself; nor should any opinion be lightly taken up against it, especially on a point of history so near to his own times. But his testimony is really of no weight, in the present case. It is contradicted by those inscriptions above. It is opposed by the whole tenour of Polybius's history of Hannibal. It is encountered by the whole tenour even of his own. It is finally and for ever overthrown, by some striking notices in other and earlier parts of his general history. This historian, therefore, who stands striding like a giant across the plain, and by the temple on Great St. Bernard, brandishing his iron mace, and forbidding me all passage with Hannibal along that avenue, I am compelled to face, because he stops me, to knock down, because he would dislodge me, and to march over his prostrate body (if I can) into Italy.'

Oculos infanos, et gaudia vana! And, in p. 350, our tremendous knight of chivalry again attacks the giant Livy, and convicts him of writing 'a mass of inaccuracy, forgetfulness, and error,' and of 'gross ignorance.' Too bad! Poor Strabo is also knocked down with his own folio, p. 353, because he specially gives us to understand, lib. iv. p. 319, that Hannibal passed by the Taurini; that is, in a direction from the west of the Alps to their country; which is palpably Livy's idea, and agreeable to good sense, and the usual order of things. And, in p. 362, we find, 'so much does Strabo vie in contradictoriness, and confusion, with Livy himself.' That is, their testimonies confute Mr. Whitaker's idea. If Mr. Whitaker's self-importance will permit us to ask a plain question, we would inquire, what credit can be given to a modern writer, who thus attacks the sole fountains of ancient truth? The visionary history of Manchester is rational in comparison of this.

But we proceed to the second volume; and, as our readers must already be tired of the subject, we shall be as brief as possible.

Mr. Whitaker is right when he observes, vol. ii. p. 28, that there are many mistakes in D'Anville's ancient geography. and, for instances, the north of Germany may be added to Britain

Britain. But he far excels any preceding geographer, and the subject is full of difficulties. D'Anville himself observed to a friend, from whom we received the remark, 'Ah monsieur, monsieur, il y a bien des erreurs dans la géographie!'

The Carthaginian medals, found on the top of Great St. Bernard, vol. ii. p. 30, 33, will never, save in the eye of fancy, afford any proof that Hannibal passed by that route. Eckhel, in his late numismatical work, denies that any Carthaginian coins exist: at any rate, it will require a person of skill to know them. We suspect those in question to have been Gaulic. But granting them Carthaginian, a thousand incidents may have brought them there, besides the passage of Hannibal: and Mr. Whitaker's fondness for the improbable can alone substitute this for an argument.

The Rex Hannibalianus, vol. ii. p. 38, note, is apparently the nephew of Constantine I. of whom we have gold and brass coins; afterwards ignorantly confounded with Hannibal. From p. 45 it appears, that Hannibal's passage over the Alps happened towards the end of October; and thus does Mr. Whitaker furnish another argument against his hypothesis, the northern Alps being impracticable to an army at that season. The 'rains of winter must begin to descend early in snows;' p. 47, appears a new expression, of a peculiarly strong flavour. Our author's warm defence of monks, p. 50, is worthy of the present hour of darkness, when the light of the reformation appears to have arisen in vain; and, indeed, the very word reformation has become so odious, that we daily expect to see Judaism replaced by act of parliament, Christianity itself being a reformation. But extremes are the only fortresses of weak minds.

Mr. Whitaker's political intemperance we have before remarked; and, as a specimen of his learned and philosophical language on the subject, we give the following note from vol. ii. p. 70:

'I thus speak of the *king* of France, as still existing: the republic, that production of the grossest and most pompous perjury, which has risen up like a puff-ball from a dunghill in the dark, being sure, in every historical view, to disappear as suddenly as it sprung, to spend itself in its own emissions of smoke and foot, and so resolve into its generative dung again.'

It is a risible instance of human frenzy to hear an Englishman thus dictate to France, to providence, to God; and akin with the pretence of a nation of eight millions, and those far from united, to impose a government on a nation of twenty-five millions, while all that the French desire of us is, that we would take physic, and keep ourselves cool. How different  
from



from the conduct of last century, that æra of real statesmen, when the powers of Europe, far from consolidating the English republic by attacks, treated it with friendship and respect, till it fell from internal causes!

In p. 82, &c. Mr. Whitaker warmly attacks Mr. Dutens, because he observes that Hannibal could only shew Italy to his soldiers from a mountain near the Col de Fenestrelles. Here is a specimen of Mr. Whitaker's argument. 'From Col de Fenestrelles, therefore, from any hill near it, from any part of the Cottian or the Graian, could not Hannibal, or any man in his senses, pretend to shew the site of Rome. But Hannibal, or any one, might from the Pennini.' As if, from any part of the world, one could not point out with one's finger the *site* of Rome!

The atheism of some members of the French republic interrupts the passage of Hannibal, vol. ii. p. 102, both text and notes, both elephants and light infantry. But Mr. Whitaker has not candour enough to allow, that in France the corruptions of Christianity were so extreme, that it is no wonder they excited a contempt of religion in some ignorant and violent minds; as the former political oppression occasioned the present political madness. 'Surely oppression maketh a wise man mad,' says a book, which if Mr. Whitaker perused more frequently, and attended less to profane history and idle disputation, he would find replete with a spirit the very reverse of his own.

The burning of rubble-coal into lime, recommended vol. ii. p. 142, from Simler, would be a strange practice at present. We are somewhat surprised at the long discussion, whether Hannibal could use vinegar in dissolving rocks. The experiment may be tried upon an inch of granite. The passage from Appian, p. 171, is rendered nonsense by Mr. Whitaker's translation, 'he extinguished the ashes with fire and vinegar:' read, 'with water and vinegar;' ἰδαὶ καὶ ὄξυς. Mr. Whitaker is most severe on Hampton, and other translators, who never fell into such an error as this. In p. 197, we are surprised to find our author so ignorant as to suppose the Greek months were divided into weeks of seven days; while it is in imitation of the Greek practice that the new French calendar dividesthe month into spaces of ten days. See that trivial work, the *Antiquitates Græcæ*, of L. Bos, pars i. c. 26: 'Mensem dividebant in tres decades,' &c. Paulus Jovius, p. 217, is a writer of well-known falsehood; and Merula only follows him; so that Mr. Whitaker's argument from their testimony falls of itself: that of Luitprand, an ignorant writer of the tenth century, is equally vague. But Jovius and Luitprand are fit opponents to Polybius and Livy.

*Italiam! Italiam!* Mr. Whitaker at length concludes.

'I have thus conducted Hannibal from Lauriol, on the Rhone in Dauphiny, to Turin, on the Po in Piedmont. I have taken him stage by stage, and step by step, through this long labyrinth of nations; as the concurring narratives of Polybius and of Livy have held out the clue \*. Geography has united with history, the present nature of the ground with the ancient description of the sites, and the Itinerary of Rome with the traditions of the Romans, to confirm *their* narrative and *my* account. I have pointed out also the grand reasons, that actuated the mind of Hannibal, and directed the movements of the Carthaginians under him. I have thus thrown a new and strong light, I presume, upon this important portion of history. I have particularly fixed the line in which he crossed the Alps, for the *first* time in a *single* part of his course, and for the *last*, I trust, in *every* part of it. One part indeed comes in to support another; while all form such an accumulative series of proofs, as no other kind of argument can possibly boast, and as raises this (I flatter myself) into a superlative sort of demonstration. Evidence has been successively added to evidence, like hill piled upon hill, till the whole (I think) has risen into a mountain, like its own St. Bernard; towering with its head over the history, as that does over the globe; leaving all the clouds at its feet, and showing the sunshine in a burst of radiance upon its sides.'

We are rejoiced that Mr. Whitaker has satisfied himself. Had he only written a visionary and prolix book, we should have relaxed the rigour of criticism: but while he not only attacks ancients and moderns, in the most virulent terms, but even goes frequently out of his way, to spatter the doors of the most respectable writers on extraneous subjects, with the dirt of his heavy waggon, he has no title to complain of censure, though we should be sorry to imitate his scurrility. We shall be the first to applaud his talents, when better employed.

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*Remarks on a Book, entitled Memoirs of Gregorio Panzani. By the Rev. Charles Plowden. Preceded by an Address to the Rev. Joseph Berington. 8vo. 5s. Coghlan. 1794.*

THE Rev. Messrs. Plowden and Berington are both Roman Catholic clergymen, but differ extremely in opinion respecting the jurisdiction of the church, and a variety of other particulars. The former is a strong advocate for the hierarchy, the latter is accused of entertaining sentiments unfavourable not only to that system, but to the principles and political con-

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\* After the preceding extracts, this must appear a strange deception, or oversight. REV.



duct of Roman Catholics, particularly the ecclesiastics, in different ages. Between disputants animated with all the zeal of opposite prejudices, and farther heated by controversies, which they have already maintained before the public, it would be in vain to expect an adherence to perfect coolness and candour of observation. The address to the Rev. Mr. Berington, which precedes the Remarks on the Memoirs, occupies almost one half of the volume, and is written with great spirit, as well as acuteness; but is so copiously blended with personal acrimony, and polemical invective, that, though it may gratify those among the Roman Catholics who entertain the same sentiments with the author, it can afford little satisfaction to the public, who are not interested in the dispute.

With respect to the Memoirs of Panzani, Mr. Plowden endeavours to evince that they are a spurious production, and could never proceed from a person who was employed in the capacity of a minister from the papal see. For the satisfaction of our readers, we shall lay before them a part of the observations adduced to establish this opinion.

‘The important report, in which Panzani communicates his own private thoughts and conjectures to cardinal Barberini, and another related by Mr. Berington, contain, in my judgment, the most intrinsic evidence of passionate folly, and therefore of absurdity and forgery. The Jesuits are here said, by a grave papal minister employed in a negociation of charity and peace, to have a great many followers and admirers; and in order to diminish the number of these admirers, he proposes to his court, to cramp the Jesuits in their faculties: he suggests a still sharper remedy, proposed by some persons in England, to dismiss them from the government of the English college at Rome. Notwithstanding that they have so many followers and admirers, he assures the cardinal, that they do not attend to the care of souls; that avarice is their *only* motive, traffic is their concern, and they have turned the mission into a business of profit: that they persecute the bishop, and that this same avarice is the *only* motive which pushes them on to do it. “He had found, he says, *by experience*, that these Jesuits were for being sole proprietors of the mission (which they so much neglected), that they wormed the clergy out of their places, and obliged them to yield to the force of interest and money.” From the same report it appears, that notwithstanding the certainty of the Jesuits crimes, which Panzani had discovered *by experience*, the young gentlemen of the best catholic families, and even of the best wits, still had not wit enough to find them out, or else were wicked enough to partake in their enormities. “For the Jesuits, says Panzani, cull out the best wits for their own body, they daily make new conquests, and incorporate youths of the best families into their society, &c.” I am ashamed

of Dodd for having inserted such trash in what he calls a *Church History*; it is fit to figure only in the *Quodlibets* or the *Considerations* of Watson; and, until Mr. Berington shall support it by the evidence of cotemporary authors, I appeal to the judgment of every man of common sense, if it be not an indignity offered to the public, to tell us, that this is the original and authentic language of a prudent minister of the holy see, sent to compose differences between the secular and regular clergy. In the multitude of pamphlets and libels against the Jesuits, which I have read, I have almost constantly observed, that the writers of them knew little or nothing of their real merits and real faults. The extravagance and the folly of the imputations, which the writers of such libels advance, is commonly an ample and very satisfactory refutation of what they impute.

Cardinal Barberini informs Panzani, that the holy see itself was afraid that the Jesuits would traverse its design of giving a bishop to England. The cardinal had probably forgotten, that a few years before, the holy see had given two bishops to England, without the smallest apprehension of the Jesuits power, though at that very time, as we have learned from Mr. Berington, the Jesuits possessed all their usual influence in the court of Rome. In the very same letter Panzani is forbidden to insinuate the banishment of the Jesuits, or even a reduction of their number, which, by Windebank's statement, exceeded three hundred, though the cardinal, and of course, his uncle the pope, well knew, that these three hundred men were traversing the designs of the holy see, and were besides, a band of traders, who persecuted bishops *only* from avarice, and *were for being* the sole proprietors of the mission, which, however, they utterly neglected. Where is cardinal Barberini's original letter, which enjoins this wonderful policy? Where is his letter, in which he talks of the Jesuits artifices, and complains of them, for not having yet declared, "that they would move in the affair (of the agreement with the secular clergy) as the Roman see should direct." The letters of Blond give evidence, that this was the very thing, which the Jesuits had constantly done in the whole dispute; and they thereby prove this unproduced letter of Barberini to be as much a forgery, as the admirable communications of Panzani himself. The letter incautiously says, that, "moving as the holy see should direct, was a method, which the Jesuits, on all occasions, seemed prepared to embrace." If this was written by Barberini, how could he possibly apprehend, that these same Jesuits would *traverse* the design of the holy see, to give a bishop to England?

Mr. Plowden's remarks on this subject are far from being void of ingenuity; but, in our opinion, they do not amount to such a proof of inconsistency as would infer the Memoirs to be spurious. Great allowance must be made for the political views of the writers of letters, which relate to transactions of a public nature; and, to one correspondent, they may with pro-



propriety express a sentiment, which, to another, it would be imprudent to reveal. Even the reputed subtlety of the Jesuits would afford additional cause for such policy in letters which related to the conduct of that ecclesiastical order.

The few other observations, made by Mr. Plowden to discredit the authenticity of the Memoirs, are similar to the preceding in point of inference, and therefore contain no argument sufficient to establish the proof of any forgery.

The Remarks are succeeded by the copy of a letter from the Rev. Mr. Milner to the author: and by an Appendix, containing some papers, which have a relation to the subjects in dispute.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*A short Exposition of the important Advantages to be derived by Great Britain from the War, whatever its Issue and Success. By the Author of the Glimpse through the Gloom. 8vo. 1s. Owen. 1794.*

**T**HAT Great Britain can derive important advantages from the war, *whatever its issue or success*, is a paradox which we do not pretend to explain. As far as we can understand the author's meaning, it is this: 'That we ought to seize the present moment, to wither the naval strength of France, to burn her fleets to the water's edge (and no doubt they will burn the better for being first withered), to obliterate every vestige of her commerce on the paths of the sea, to stand its uncontrolled and unrivalled master, and to bear away, for the next century, at least, the monopoly of the world, and virtually of the world's empire with it.'

*The Trial of William Skirving, Secretary to the British Convention, before the High Court of Justiciary, on the 6th and 7th of January, 1794; for Sedition. Containing a full and circumstantial Account of all the Proceedings and Speeches, as taken down in Short-hand, by Mr. Ramsay, Short-hand Writer, from London. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1794.*

The seditious practices charged against Mr. Skirving, were, that he contributed to circulate the handbill for which Mr. Fyshe Palmer was tried, and that he associated with a number of persons, calling themselves 'The British convention of the delegates of the people, to obtain universal suffrage, and annual parliaments,' and who aped the forms of the French convention in their proceedings. After a long trial, he was found guilty, and sentenced to fourteen years transportation beyond seas. Mr. Skirving, or, as he affects to be called, *Citizen Skirving*, defends himself with a considerable portion of shrewd-

shrewdness and skill, and, making allowance for the absurdity of universal suffrage, and a mock convention, appears to be an honest man, and we could have wished he had been tried by the milder laws of England. The short-hand writer has done justice to a trial, uncommonly tedious, and in some instances very uninteresting.

*Observations on the Corporation and Test Acts, in a Letter to a Friend: wherein is fully proved that no Dissenter from the established Church can be admitted into any Office where the Test is required by Law as a Qualification, such Dissenter being inadmissible, though he demand the Sacrament on any Occasion whatever. To which is prefixed a short Address to the Junior Council of the Town and County of Nottingham. By Charles Heathcote, Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Payne. 1794.*

What is promised in the title of this pamphlet is duly performed. It required, indeed, no great effort to prove that a Dissenter accepts a civil office at his peril. The rest, and by far the greater part of the pamphlet, is employed in censuring the Dissenters in general, as meditating the subversion of the constitution, and extracts are given from contemporary writers, who held the same opinion. It appears that some of the corporation of Nottingham are Dissenters; but the same may be said of the corporation of London and other cities of note; yet with all this leaven of sedition fermenting among them, what bodies of men, during the present crisis, seem more decided in their support of government than corporations! How these interested Conformists reconcile the matter to themselves, we know not, but we do not hesitate to say that a Dissenter, professing to be conscientious, and creeping into a civil office, either by evading, or privately taking the test, has as few pretensions to the character of a gentleman, or a man of honour, as he, who, for the sake of a few such, publicly reviles the whole body of peaceable, loyal and useful subjects, who are above such meanness.

*A Looking-Glass for a Right Honourable Mendicant; or, the real Character of a certain great Orator; with important political Observations: in particular the Marrow of the Slave Question, and of that respecting the Laws of Debtor and Creditor, &c. &c. By an Old Member of Parliament. 8vo. 3s. Crosby. 1794.*

This censure on the whole conduct, public and private, of Mr. Fox, is in some instances illiberal, in some just, but in all marked with a determined asperity. The blemishes of his public life are magnified beyond credibility; those of his private are taken for granted to be atrocious beyond precedent or denial. It may be supposed, therefore, we cannot bestow either unqualified praise or blame on this pamphlet. To sit down to vilify a character *eo animo* is not candid, nor, however apparently successful, can it be free from suspicion. Ex. gr. It is not fair to say that, in 1792, Mr. Fox left his friends, and put himself at the head of the republican party.

The



The fact is, and the author of this pamphlet knows it, that his friends left him; but he made no acquisition of strength by joining any party. The party he heads are the scanty remains of near four hundred members of the two houses who acted with him formerly, and are a sergeant's guard, compared to the mighty army he once led on.

This author, indeed, while he discovers more than common ability, is often betrayed by his invincible aversion to whiggism. He says that the principles of toryism, openly cherished by the court, have been gaining ground during the present reign; and are at this hour more universally predominant in the kingdom than at any former period—Granted. But when he adds, that those principles ‘appear to reconcile and create a perfect harmony between the stability of a legal hereditary monarchy, and the divine indefeasible hereditary rights of citizens,’ we are left in a confused misapplication of terms. Nor are we much more enlightened when in another place (p. 40) he informs us that America was lost to this country ‘for no other reason in the world than that this country at that particular period did not produce either a minister of state or a general.’—In treating on the necessity of certain reforms, however, particularly in the laws respecting debtors and creditors, and in contending for the abolition of the slave-trade, our author's talents appear in the most respectable light.

*An Address to the Inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, in Reply to a printed Report of the London Corresponding Societies.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Downes. 1794.

The report here commented upon was printed in May, 1780, and recommends universal suffrage and annual parliaments. The author of the Address answers this report, paragraph by paragraph, but displays so little ability that we cannot reckon him among the supporters of government. The only thing that occurs as *new*, is the defence he sets up for a noble duke's having abandoned the cause of parliamentary reform, namely, ‘that he made ample atonement when he abandoned it.’ Logic does not furnish a name for this inversion, and we must leave it as we found it.

*Considerations on false and real Alarms.* By Colonel Norman Macleod, M. P. Dedicated with sincere and affectionate Respect to the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1794.

What colonel Macleod means by false alarms may be readily guessed. His real alarms respect the state of this country when France shall be established in a cheap government, and Great Britain oppressed with heavy taxes in consequence of a long war. We have heard much lately of *cheap governments*. Thomas Paine recommended that mode of going to market, but the people of this country, while they remain satisfied with their government, will not *higgle* at the

price, and the French in obtaining their *cheap* government have contracted a debt of bloodshed and wanton cruelty which ages will not liquidate.

*A Letter to the Duke of Grafton, with Notes. To which is annexed a complete Exculpation of M. De La Fayette from the Charges indecently urged against him by Mr. Burke, in the House of Commons, on the 17th March, 1794.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Owen. 1794.

'It is matter of surprise, my lord, to many, and of offence to all, that your grace should again provoke the suspended indignation of your country, and renounce that obscurity to which the universal and well-founded contempt of the world had consigned you.'

This is the first sentence of this furious attack. *Ex uno disce omnes.* The remainder is a torrent of abuse against the duke of Grafton for having spoken and voted against the war. Whatever justice there may be in the matter, we turn with disgust from the manner of such an attack, and find some relief in the defence of M. la Fayette, whose present situation, we agree, is as infamous and oppressive as it is impolitic and unjust. The author is scarcely less enraged against Mr. Burke than against the duke, and leaves the former no reason to think that he is singular in bringing in *indecent charges*. Indeed, we know not which are most indecent, the charges against the duke, or those against Fayette; but there are few who would not rather be the object than the author of either.

*Considerations on the Causes and alarming Consequences of the present War, and the Necessity of immediate Peace. By a Graduate of the University of Cambridge.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1794.

This author enters into a long, and, however we may differ from him in opinion on certain points, an able survey of the rise, progress, and probable consequences of the present war; and from every view and consideration of that important subject, concludes in favour of an immediate peace. He denies the necessity of the war, adverts, with much justice, to the tardiness of our allies, and deploras that imbecillity to conquer France, which is the consequence of our former expensive wars. He avoids any comparison between the constitutions of France and this country, and, upon the whole, leaves us no room to doubt his impartiality, or the rectitude of his intentions.

*An Address to the People of Great Britain, on the Impiety and Irreligion of the French.* 8vo. 1s. Owen. 1794.

A narrative, well drawn up, from the Conventional Journals of the various steps taken by the members of the convention and the people of France to dishonour revealed religion, is here followed by an exhortation to all ranks of people, to redouble their zeal in the cause of religion, and to promote its growth by example as well as precept. This pamphlet is written in a plain, unaffected style, and the



the author confines himself strictly to his subject, which can never be unseasonable.

*Speech of William Adam, Esq. in the House of Commons, March 10th, 1794. On moving for the Production on certain Records, and for an Address to the King, to interpose the Royal Justice and Clemency, in Behalf of Thomas Muir, Esq. and the Rev. Thomas Fyfe Palmer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1794.*

In this very able and constitutional speech, Mr. Adam undertakes to maintain, first, that the crimes set forth in the indictments against Thomas Muir, and Thomas Fyfe Palmer, are what the law of Scotland terms *leasing-making*, which, by the English law, is a misdemeanor, in the nature of a public libel, tending to affect the state; and the indictments charge no other offence whatever. Secondly, that the punishment of *transportation* cannot by the law of Scotland be legally inflicted for the crime of *leasing-making*, or *public libel*. The Scots act of queen Ann (1703, c. 4.) having appropriated to that crime the punishment of fine, imprisonment, or *banishment*, under which pain of *banishment*, *transportation* is not included; and that the annexing the pain of death to the return from such *transportation* is an aggravation not warranted by law; the punishment of death being expressly taken away by the statute of 1703, c. 4. and no statute has passed since that time, which varies or alters that law. Thirdly, that if the acts charged in the indictments do not constitute the crime of *leasing-making*, or *public libel*, the indictments charge no crime known to the law of Scotland; because there is no such crime known to the law of Scotland, at common law, as *sedition* constituting a separate and distinct offence: and these offences do not fall within the statutory seditions. And because, if there is such a crime at common law, these indictments do not change it, and it would be contrary to law to punish that offence by *transportation*; and not warranted by law to inflict the pain of death for returning from such *transportation*.

These propositions appear to us to be very clearly made out, and the ability displayed in the proof excites some surprize at the little effect it produced. We have, however, no scruple in asserting that the sentences on Messrs. Muir and Palmer will, at some, perhaps no very distant period, be reversed.

*The Voice of Truth against the Corruptions in Church and State. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1794.*

The ravings of Deism against priests and establishments; a panegyric upon French piety; and many a sneer at revealed religion (with which, by the bye, the author seems totally unacquainted) constitute the merit of this 'stale, flat, and unprofitable' repetition of impotent arguments. We have always observed, that those writers have a peculiar *knack* at such attacks upon religion, who are least affected by its spirit, or conversant in its history.

*The*

*The whole Proceedings on the Trial of an Indictment against Thomas Walker, of Manchester, Merchant, William Paul, Samuel Jackson, James Cheetham, Oliver Pearsall, Benjamin Booth, and Joseph Collier; for a Conspiracy to overthrow the Constitution and Government, and to aid and assist the French, (being the King's Enemies) in Case they should invade this Kingdom. Tried at the Assizes at Lancaster, April 2, 1794, before the Hon. Mr. Justice Heath, one of the Judges of his Majesty's Court of Common Pleas. Taken in Short-hand by Joseph Gurney. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1794.*

This is altogether a shameful business. We question whether so vile and so groundless a persecution ever before engaged the attention of a court. The defendants were accused of crimes which might have led to the loss of liberty, and, perhaps, of life, on the solitary, unsupported evidence of one man, who in the course of a long examination, seems scarcely to have uttered a single truth, and whom, at last, the court found it necessary to commit to prison for the blackest perjury. The jury, without hesitation, acquitted Mr. Walker; and the other defendants, who were to have been tried upon the evidence of the perjurer, were consequently acquitted. It is truly painful to read this trial. A very heavy blame rests somewhere; it is impossible, we think, that any one man could of himself have come forward with an accusation which he had no other person to support: it is more impossible that the character of this witness could have been unknown to all the parties concerned in the prosecution. The defence was conducted by Mr. Erskine with great ability and ingenuity; and we must in justice add, that Mr. Law and the other counsel for the crown behaved with great candour, and appear to have been ashamed of the necessity imposed on them to prosecute. The whole of this trial, with the documents in the Appendix, though affording a melancholy picture of human depravity, and insolent abuse of office, is highly worthy of the public notice.

*Peace with the Jacobins impossible. By William Playfair, Author of the Commercial and Political Atlas. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1794.*

As true friends to the constitution of this country, we have sincerely lamented that the defence of government should (by any chance), have fallen into hands so extremely incompetent as those of Mr. W. Playfair. If Mr. W. Playfair is a volunteer on that side the question, our advice to the friends of ministry is, 'to give the man a dinner,' and command him 'to sit still. — In plain terms, let him have a pension for holding his tongue. If the case is otherwise, we earnestly recommend the sending him for a limited period to a good grammar-school, that he may at least acquire some of the qualifications necessary to the task he has undertaken.

NOVELS



## NOVELS and ROMANCES.

*Henry Stukely; or, the Effects of Dissipation.* By William Helme.  
3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. sewed. Dangerfield. 1794.

The History of Henry Stukely presents, what is by no means uncommon, the picture of an innocent and well educated youth led into vice by the temptations of a great town. It likewise exhibits him preserving the natural sensibility and goodness of his heart amidst scenes the most calculated to violate those qualities; and so much attached to his first love (a country clergyman's daughter) as to refuse the most brilliant establishment for her sake, even while he was rendering himself unworthy of her. This, perhaps, is not so common in real life, but the author has made ample use of the privilege of fiction, by abundance of recognitions and wonderful turns of fortune; by means of which, not only the hero of the piece, but every one connected with him, is made superlatively happy at the end of the third volume.—Every one who was lost is found; every one who was ruined is reinstated in the favours of fortune, to the infinite satisfaction of the good-natured reader; and nobody is left unhappy but two or three hardened villains, whom one is glad to see punished.—With regard to the execution, there is certainly nothing of fine writing in it, neither is it so deficient as many works of this class, which it has been our fortune to peruse.

*The Younger Brother: a Novel, written by Mr. Dibdin.* 3 Vols.  
8vo. 13s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

It is usual for novels to commence with the birth of the personage who makes the principal figure in the narrative: but in the production now before us, the author has deduced the history from a period beyond this epocha. Through the extent of three volumes, and those not of a small size, it may justly be expected that a variety of incidents should occur; and in endeavouring to cater for the palate of his readers, we are ready to acknowledge that Mr. Dibdin has not been deficient. The fable, in its progress, is conducted with probability; the conversations, though not always interesting from their subject, are frequently managed with much humour; and the different persons are strongly marked, rather than contrasted by prominent features in their character. By a mixture of classical allusions and observations, the author has given the work, in many places, an air of dignity superior to the common standard of novels. But what chiefly distinguishes it, is a competent knowledge of the world; exhibited, for the most part, in delineating such propensities as have their source in the numerous modifications of vice and folly. Let us, however, observe, in justice to the author, that he recognizes no sentiments of pernicious tendency; and that immoral characters, though successful in their pursuits, are never described as objects which are worthy the esteem of the intelligent.

*The Haunted Priory: or, the Fortunes of the House of Rayo. A Romance founded partly on historical Facts.* 8vo. 4s. Bell. 1794.

The house of the baron de Rayo, who had served under Peter the Cruel of Castile, having been ruined by treachery, and his children scattered, he is introduced in disguise of a mendicant, wandering about the country in order to hear tidings of their fate. Directed by a prophetic dream, he arrives at the house of an old friend and fellow in arms, Don Isidor, and becomes extremely attached to Alphonso, a youth who passes for the son of Isidor, and in whom he discovers a strong resemblance to Gonsalvo his lost son.—With their assistance he penetrates to the *Haunted Priory*, where by means of supernatural appearances, he discovers that Gonsalvo has been murdered, that his body lies there; and that his wife, confined in the Priory, has been exposed to the daily solicitations of a lawless lover for near twenty years together; the patience of this lover we cannot but admire. A youth is likewise introduced to him as his grandson, and the baron being restored to his honours and fortunes, and his oppressors punished, all would go well, but for a violent passion which young Alphonso entertains for his sister, the daughter of Don Isidor. This difficulty, however, is solved by another discovery, namely, that the sons of the baron and Don Isidor have been exchanged in the cradle, which sets all matters right, except, perhaps, with the reader, who may be disposed to require a little more probability than he will meet with in this tale, which is frigid, though romantic, and does not make amends by the graces of fiction for quitting the plain and useful path of history and fact.

*Sydney St. Aubyn. In a Series of Letters, by Mr. Robinson, Author of Love Fragments, &c.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Herbert. 1794.

These Letters may be considered as so many episodical productions, generally connected, in some degree, with two principal characters, the termination of whose history appears to be the object of the whole. The Letters are more remarkable for an appearance of interest, in the different correspondents, than any high degree of sympathy excited in the reader by the progress of the narrative. They are written, however, with vivacity, and, in general, with correctness of expression.

*The Shrine of Bertha: a Novel, in a Series of Letters. By Miss M. E. Robinson.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Scatchard. 1794.

Other literary productions are valuable in different degrees, according to the proportion of truth or of utility which they contain; but *Novels*, as their sole purpose is entertainment, must either be the most amusing, or the most insipid of publications. We cannot say that the two volumes before us belong to the *former* class.



*The Necromancer : or the Tale of the Black Forest : founded on Facts : translated from the German of Lawrence Flammenberg, by Peter Teuthold. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Lane. 1794.*

We are assured that the strange events related in these volumes, are founded on facts, the authenticity of which can be warranted by the translator, who has lived many years not far from the principal place of action. Exclusive of the entertainment arising from this narrative, it has in view an additional purpose, of greater importance to the public. It exposes the arts which have been practised in a particular part of Germany, for carrying on a series of nocturnal depredations in the neighbourhood; and infusing into the credulous multitude a firm belief in the existence of sorcery.

### M A T H E M A T I C A L, &c.

*The Longitude discovered, by a new Mathematical Instrument, called Graphor. 8vo. 1s. Hookham and Carpenter. 1794.*

We have heard so often of the longitude being discovered, that, on reading the title of this book, we were very willing to make allowances for the author's sanguine expectations, and to be reconciled to the event, if it should be found that this grand geographical mystery had eluded his most accurate researches. With this resignation we opened the work; but notwithstanding the positive assurances of the writer, that the secret was discovered, our natural incredulity took possession of us, when we found that the board of longitude had been applied to, but had not even deigned to take notice of the communication. How far it is justifiable in a public board to treat any application in this manner, it is not our business to decide: but though the letter, which is inserted in this volume, might not raise in them any great expectations, it is to be recollected, that every inventor may not communicate his ideas in the easiest manner, and the board may discover very useful hints from unsuccessful efforts.

From the silence of the commissioners, an appeal is made to the public, in which the merits of the instrument are naturally placed in the most favourable light; and the errors of the nautical almanack, if they are really such, very boldly inveighed against. We are told that the tables of dip parallax, and sun's declination, as laid down in the Nautical Almanack and requisite tables, may be proved to be erroneous in a clear and evident manner, to the satisfaction of all persons conversant in astronomy and navigation. It is hinted, that the distance of the sun from the moon, or a star measured with the sextant, produces more than fifteen degrees in an hour. These errors are discovered by the graphor. One observation respecting the dip, will give a specimen of the author's style, and may lead persons, properly situated, to make the necessary experiments, whence some estimate will naturally be formed of the degree of weight due to many other assertions in this work.

‘ To prove the great errors of the lunar observations remain with the graphor only, but to prove those of the table for dip, let two observers be placed close to the sea shore, one making use of the horizon of the sea, and the other of the true horizon; on comparing both arches, and allowing six foot for that of the sea, the difference must show the error of the table. It will plainly convince at several heighths, that closet calculations are little to be depended upon at sea. On the other hand, if both observers repeat their observations to ascertain the latitude of the place, one at the true horizon and the other at that of the sea, it will be found that from the 14th to the 24th of March, the graphor and the best brass sextant will be nearly alike; but from the 28th of March to the 10th of May following, there will be a gradual difference of about four degrees from the truth, between the instruments; and about the 19th of June, the above difference will be less and less till the sun ends its declination, when both the instruments will be again nearly equal. If we should suppose an observation taken at sea from the 28th of March to the 10th of May, in using the present tables of dip, parallax, and declination: how widely distant must the observer be from his supposed latitude! The mariner, under weigh, must then depend upon the judgment of the astronomer.’

Before the public is favoured with a description of this wonderful instrument, a subscription is requested, which, when it amounts to twenty thousand pounds, is to be at the discretion of twelve able persons, chosen by the subscribers, who are to examine the merits of the instrument, and if it answers, the inventers are to call upon the subscribers for the money. In the mean time, any person wishing to have a sight of the instrument, is desired to send a letter post paid to Messrs. Peter Degrauers, M. D. and Henry Ould, at the Literary Assembly, No. 15. Old Bond-street; and a few days after they will receive a letter with an appointment to see it. As the authors have thrown down the gauntlet with the board of longitude, we have our apprehensions on this mode of proceeding, and the graphor may, for some time at least, share the fate of similar inventions.

*The Construction and Use of a Thermometer, for shewing the Extremes of Temperature in the Atmosphere, during the Observer's Absence. Together with Experiments on the Variations of Local Heat; and other Meteorological Observations. By James Six, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 4s. Wilkie. 1794.*

A very proper and affectionate tribute of respect to the memory of a much beloved father-in-law. Mr. Six was well known to the philosophical world for his observations on the state of the atmosphere, and his ingenious efforts to improve the thermometer; but his philosophy was not confined to material objects; he considered religion as essential to the character of man, and dedicated a considerable



derable portion of his time to the instructing of the youth in his neighbourhood in the knowledge of their Creator. Trifling as this may appear to the pretended philosophers of the present days, who without studying, too frequently reject revelation, and laugh at what they have not ability to confute, we cannot but think it well deserving of their attention, and though we should not call on them to imitate, in this particular, so excellent an example, we might point out to them his unaffected piety, as the distinguishing feature of a true philosopher.

A great part of this work has already appeared in the Philosophical Transactions. The arrangement is altered, the whole is put together in a more complete form; and to those who have not convenient access to the Philosophical Transactions, this will be a valuable acquisition. We shall not repeat here what we said in a former volume on the merits of the instrument, but shall be happy to find that experience has confirmed Mr. Six's reasons against our objections. But, though we might state some things as objections, we conceive the instrument capable of being made very useful, and, if the utmost accuracy should not be attainable, it certainly affords the opportunity of knowing very nearly the state of the atmosphere in the observer's absence, and the conclusions deduced will not, provided the instrument is carefully watched, deviate widely from the truth.

A note to the Preface, gives a short account of the son of Mr. Six, who was distinguished for an extensive knowledge of languages ancient and modern, for poetical talents, far above mediocrity, and for that benevolence of disposition, which made him the admiration and joy of his family and friends. Death removed him from the world at Rome in the twenty-ninth year of his age, and we are told that he left behind him a translation of Wieland's *Oberon*. We understand that he had undertaken a translation of *Lycophron*, and was frequently employed in versions from the scripture. Perhaps, among his writings many other fugitive pieces may be found, and if there should be reasons against printing the translation of *Oberon*, there cannot, we presume, be any objection against a selection to be made from his other compositions; and the same piety, which has given the work, now before us to the public, may, perhaps, be induced to gratify it still more by rescuing from oblivion the remains of the son.

*The Theory and Practice of finding the Longitude at Sea or Land: to which are added, various Methods of determining the Latitude of a Place, and Variation of the Compass; with new Tables. By Andrew Mackay, A. M. F. R. S. E. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. sewed. Sewel. 1793.*

A very useful praxis and investigation of the various modes of finding the longitude. The author first gives a concise account of the planetary system, then describes the various instruments used  
in

in taking altitudes, and, after a sufficient number of preparatory problems, the mode of finding the longitude by lunar observations, eclipses of the sun and moon, occultations of the fixed stars by the moon, eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter, by the chronometer, and the variation charts. The praxis is in the former, the demonstrations in the latter part of the first volume; the second volume contains the necessary tables. After each rule is a sufficient number of examples, to give a perfect knowledge of the use of it. The navigator, who has mastered the problems in this work, will not, with a clear sky over his head, find himself at a loss for his reckoning; and it might be made a useful compendium in a long voyage, for, by daily perusal, the younger proficients in the art of navigation may acquire a taste for a mode of observation, which we fear, notwithstanding its evident utility, has by no means obtained general practice. In speaking thus of younger proficients, we do not mean to say, that any person, whether on land or at sea, who employs himself in finding the longitude of the place he is in, will not reap much advantage by having the rules and examples laid down in this work to guide him in his practice; for no method will easily occur, of which he will not find here an example.

### M E D I C A L.

*Sketches of Facts and Opinions respecting the Venereal Disease. By William Houlston, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons; Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries and of the Medical Society of London; Surgeon to the Philanthropic Reform, and to the Royal Universal Dispensary. Second Edition, with Amendments, and an additional Section on the Formation and Cure of Strictures in the Urethra. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell. 1794.*

This very useful manual, which is addressed ad populum, we had an opportunity on a former occasion of recommending to public notice, and we are glad to find, by the advertisement to this edition, that 'the work has found its way into many medical hands:' indeed, it is well calculated to be useful to young practitioners.

It remains at present for us only to notice the additional section on the cure of strictures, &c. which we think not less useful than any part of the work. The following remarks are deserving attention, and we, therefore, have thought it right to extract them:

'As strictures are so exceedingly gradual in their formation, and take place without pain, or indeed any symptom that attracts notice, patients seldom suspect their existence, till they find an unusual difficulty in evacuating the bladder; or till, instead of a full stream, the urine falls from the urethra in irregular drops, issues in a thread-like jet, or spurts out in a spiral direction, forking into separate currents, while, at the same time, it's expulsion demands the strongest efforts on the part of the patient.

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Persons in this situation, in compliance with a vulgar prejudice, very often resort to the use of diuretic drinks, such as gin and water, &c. mistaking the difficulty of passing the urine for a defect in the secretion of it; and in the use of these means they are somewhat encouraged by a degree of present relief which they sometimes experience, from the effect of spirituous liquors in taking off spasm; a cause which interferes, more or less, with all strictures of the urethra. Not unfrequently, however, it happens, that the bladder becomes distended with water, and the power of evacuating it is no less deficient than at first. In this case, the patient's life is endangered by the suppression, and recourse is then, of necessity, had to the aid of the surgeon, who, perhaps with considerable difficulty, procures an outlet for the urine, by the united assistance of the warm-bath, opiate glysters, and the catheter.'

## P O E T I C A L.

*A Farewel Ode on a distant Prospect of Cambridge. By the Author of the Brunoniad. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley. 1794.*

The author laments, but not in the strains of a Mason or a Gray, that he must quit the quiet scenes of academic leisure for the sorrows and anxieties of the world, particularly at this moment of alarm and slaughter.

'What hope for man, o'erwhelming war,  
Uncommon furies in his train,  
O'er heaps of carnage rolls his car,  
And Europe mourns her thousands slain;  
What hope, amidst disastrous days,  
When freedom's temple totters to its base,  
And, with earth's vilest brood, dishonour'd science strays!'

He enumerates several of the great men who have illustrated this seminary, and proceeds to advise his Alma Mater that she would encourage the future growth of such, by laying aside all bigotry to ancient systems and dispositions to persecute, referring to the proceedings against Mr. Frend. He concludes:

'Let Europe, Cam, with hideous mien,  
Light persecution's frightful fire:  
Amid the general storm serene,  
Bid thou the new-born thought aspire.  
Let not thine hand its course controul,  
Unbounded bid the seas of science roll;  
Nor bind, in slavery's chain, the bold, the vigorous soul.  
Why should the gloom of ancient years  
O'ercloud the day-spring of the mind?  
In youth renew'd, dispel thy fears,  
And cast the wither'd slough behind.

C. R. N. AR. (XI.) Aug. 1794.

K k

Amidst

Amidst mortality's drear maze,  
 From hope's high cliff, let virtue's beacons blaze,  
 And, up perfection's steep, thine eye insatiate raise.  
 Wherever truth and reason meet,  
 Wherever worth, deserted, strays,  
 Do thou afford a generous seat,  
 And clasp them, with a friend's embrace.  
 Thine be the truly liberal plan,  
 And, dauntless, in the philosophic van,  
 Assert, with steady zeal, the dignity of man.'

We meet with several inaccurate or quaint expressions in this little piece, such as, *careering tempests, sheeny state, wailful woe, brawling billows, splendred ray*. We should suppose the last to be an error of the press, for *splendid*, if it were not so common a practice for verse-writers to confound all the parts of speech by illegitimate derivation of adverbs from adjectives, nouns from verbs, and particles from nouns in every mode of grammatical confusion.

*Juvenile Pieces: designed for the Youth of both Sexes. By John Evans, A. M. Pastor of a Congregation, meeting in Worship-street. Second Edition, enlarged and corrected. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Crosby. 1794.*

This is a well meant but an insipid performance. It consists of—'The Student's Dream.—The Vision of Female Excellence.—The Painter's Panegyrist.'—And two other pieces of a more serious cast. The author's attempts to entertain have certainly failed, and his admonition, we apprehend, is of too grave a nature to attract the notice of young people. An extract from Mason's 'Elegy to a Nobleman leaving the University,' and 'the Fireside' by Dr. Cotton, are introduced, and are by far the most valuable parts of the work.

*The Tears of the Muse, an Elegiac Poem. Sacred to the Memory of the Right Honourable Sarah Countess of Westmorland. Addressed to and particularly intended for the future Consideration of Lord Burghursh. By Peter Alley, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1794.*

Whether this Elegy has had the good fortune to engage the attention of the family to whom it is addressed, we cannot pretend to say. It certainly has not merit enough to attract the notice of the public. It is monotonous, moralizing, and heavy. The tears of the Muses turn to gems, but these are only common water.

*A crying Epistle from Britannia to Colonel Mack, including a naked Portrait of the King, Queen, and Prince, with Notes, political, philosophical, and personal, by Anthony Pasquin, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1794.*

The exaggerated ideas, which have been formed by some, of the prowess of the gallant officer here mentioned, and the childish and unreasonable hopes by them entertained from his introduction on the



the theatre of war, have given occasion to this little squib, in which Britannia is made to lament the condition to which she is reduced by war and taxes. What wit there is, is of a very coarse grain, and the verse mere doggrel: as for example:

' The hair upon my head's turned white with thinking,  
My drapery's threadbare, and my firmness sinking:  
Now all my spirit's gone, I take to drinking!  
When I am muzzy, pity me, great Mack,  
Lord what a way I'm in—good lack!

' Virtue's denied the privilege of dining;  
My shuttle's dusty—my battalion's whining,  
All *Stock* but that of Impudence declining!  
Regenerate my interests peerless Mack,  
Lord what a way I'm in—good lack!

The characters, in prose, of the king, queen, and prince of Wales, are written in a rambling, unconnected manner, and in a very bad style. In short, the whole is a very paltry performance.

*Poems; by the late Mr. Samuel Marsh Oram: an Introduction, by Percival Stockdale. 4to. 2s. 6d. Cadell. 1794.*

Mr. Oram, as we learn from the Preface which Mr. Stockdale has prefixed to his poems, was an amiable and promising young man, a native of Shaftesbury, in Dorsetshire, where he practised as an attorney, and died at the early age of six and twenty, in full possession of the esteem of his friends and fellow-townsmen. He was fond of poetry and the elegant arts, and sedulously devoted his leisure time to their cultivation; not without success, as is sufficiently evinced by these specimens of his abilities, which are elegant and harmonious, but, at the same time, of that plaintive cast, which suggests a suspicion that he would have been happier if he had been less attached to pursuits very dissonant from the crabbed genius of his profession. At the same time we must confess, that we see no propriety in ushering these trifles into the world, in so pompous a manner as Mr. Stockdale has done in his account, which represents the author as a genius of a superior order, whose early progress was interesting to the world. The public *may* have been deprived of some future gratification by the *death* of the poet; it would have lost nothing worth regretting by the suppression of his works. The following sonnet may shew the turn of the rest:

‘ TO THE MEMORY OF A FRIEND.

' Slow glides the river o'er its pebbly bed,  
And slow along its lonely banks I bend  
My weary way, where waving soft impend  
The willow's drooping branches o'er my head,

K k 2

Oh!

Oh! lower bend your weeping leaves, that while  
 Life's lamp shall dimly burn beneath your shade,  
 Remote from the tumultuous world's parade,  
 Peace, on her downy wings, may kindly smile;  
 Delusion fond with which hope's bosom glows,  
 Glimmering a moment, and as soon o'ercast!  
 For still her mantle memory o'er me throws,  
 Wrought with the scenes of many a sorrow past;  
 And with her faithful pencil paints the hour,  
 I saw thee yield to Death's remorseless power!

## R E L I G I O U S.

*Specimens of the Manner in which public Worship is conducted in Dissenting Congregations; with a Service for Baptism; and the Celebration of the Lord's Supper; and the Burial of the Dead.* By J. H. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Walker. 1793.

That a general odium has been raised against the Dissenters in every part of the kingdom, and that it is undeserved, we are ready to allow; but it does not follow that the author of these specimens has adopted the most convincing mode of refuting a calumny of this nature. These may be specimens of *his* manner of worship (if he be a minister), but they do not come sanctioned by the general consent and approbation of the Dissenters. He says, that they agree in sentiment, as nearly as possible, with those in general use among *rational* Dissenters; but who are *rational* Dissenters? Are they numerous, and what proportion do they bear to other Dissenters? Many, we know, who affect to be called *rational* Dissenters, use the reformed Liturgy, partly on the plan of Dr. Clarke. The *irrational* Dissenters, that is, the orthodox Dissenters, who, we believe, far outnumber the other kind, use a manner very different from that given in this pamphlet. In no light can these specimens be considered as speaking the sentiments of the Dissenters, unless they had issued them by general consent. They have not here even the sanction of a name. Thus much as to the intention with which J. H. has published them. As to their intrinsic merit, their character is that of simplicity, seldom rising to animation, and in no respect superior to the common forms in manuals of devotion, except, perhaps, that to some they may appear more *rational*.

*A Sermon preached in Lambeth Chapel, at the Consecration of the Honourable and Right Reverend William, Lord Bishop of St. David's, on Sunday, January 12, 1794.* By Charles Peter Layard, D. D. F. R. S. F. A. S. Prebendary of Worcester, and Chaplain in ordinary to his Majesty. Published by Command of his Grace the Archbishop. 4to. 1s. Walter. 1794.

After detailing, in a cursory way, the struggles of the church in the early ages of Christianity, and exulting in its final superiority over



over the attacks of its inveterate enemies, the author proceeds to allude to the destruction of religion in France :

‘ Ancient history, says he, affords us no instance of whole nations betrayed into acquiescence with such impieties ; it has transmitted to us accounts of the banishment of the teachers of them from the wisest states, as the destroyers of society, and the enemies of order and happiness. It would have most likely, in those days, been accounted a most injurious calumny of human nature, if any one had dared to suggest the possibility of such degeneracy, and such perversion of judgment, as could induce any number of persons, especially of persons considering themselves as a community, to call in question the very first principles to which human society is indebted for its stability. It would have been esteemed a most absurd supposition, that, after many centuries of successive improvement in arts and sciences, any people, elated with the idea of being more enlightened than their predecessors, should obstinately relapse into that barbarism, both of opinions and conduct, from whence they had been for ages gradually emerging ; that, professing a view to the security of social happiness, they should revert to notions, which savage ignorance could alone adopt, and savage rapacity could alone encourage. Such extravagance of error, far beyond the extent of human foresight, surpassing almost every imaginable probability, distinguishes, however, the modern from the ancient opposers of our holy faith.’

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‘ But,’ says the doctor, ‘ let it never be apprehended, though delusions should multiply more and more ; though the profligate should endeavour to lull their consciences to rest with the opiates of sophistry, attempting to give peace where there can be no peace ; though the restless malignity of abandoned men should labour but too effectually in disturbing the present comforts, and destroying the future hopes of the innocent and unsuspecting, exciting them to violence and impiety in this life, and consigning them hereafter to *eternal sleep* ; though the infinite variety of errors should join in one last and desperate effort to overthrow Christ’s religion, and God’s dominion over the world ; let it not still be apprehended that instruments will be wanting to counteract, under His gracious protection and providence, the senseless violence of His foes. The throne that is established by righteousness, and the sceptre which is held in justice and mercy, shall still be a refuge for those, who “ are persecuted for righteousness’ sake.”

*Thoughts on the Nature of true Devotion, with Reflections on the late Fast. Addressed to the British Nation.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1794.

This pamphlet ought to be entitled, a Defence of the Principles and Practices of the French Nation, and a Censure of the Church

Church Establishment of this Kingdom. It is, in truth, one of those productions, which, under the mask of candour and impartiality, is written with prejudices as inveterate as those which it is intended to destroy.

*A Charitable Morsel of unleavened Bread, for the Author of a Letter to the Rev. William Romaine; entituled, Gideon's Cake of Barley Meal; being a Reply to that Pamphlet.* 8vo. 6d. Matthews. 1793.

This is a judicious and candid reply to an inveterate and illiberal attack on the emigrant French clergy, and Mr. Romaine, who, from the pulpit, had pleaded for their wants.—In our review of the pamphlet, to which this is an answer, we entered sufficiently into the merits of the dispute.

*The Sentiments and Conduct becoming Britons in the present Conjunction. A Sermon, preached in the Church of Canongate, on the Occasion of the General National Fast, Feb. 27, 1794, from Joel i. 6—15. By Robert Walker, F. R. S. Senior Minister of Canongate, and Chaplain of the Chamber of Commerce of Edinburgh.* 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1794.

Mr. Walker expatiates upon the miseries in which a neighbouring nation is involved by its impiety, and exhorts his hearers to impress on their minds every religious acknowledgment of the Divine administration, to cultivate a reverence for the ordinances of divine worship, and to study to show a decent expression of outward manners in our present situation; to conduct themselves with a wise consideration of the circumstances which demand their chief caution in the present conjuncture, and to quit themselves like men, under the alarms sounded by that 'bitter and hasty' nation, which now sets heaven and earth at defiance. After a comparison between the government of France and Great Britain, he desires them to consider whether treasure, or even blood, can be expended in a worthier cause, than in resisting the attempts of those who would rob us of the blessings of time, and of the prospects of eternity.

*A Discourse on the Lord's Day; or Christian Sabbath. In which the Points of Doctrine on that Subject, and the correspondent Line of Practice, are briefly, and distinctly stated. Published in Addition to Three Sermons, for the Festivals and Fasts of the Church of England. By Joseph Holden Pott, M. A. Prebendary of Lincoln, and Archdeacon of St. Albans.* Small 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1794.

This Discourse is every thing that its title expresses. It is plain and rational, and though somewhat speculative in the introductory part, which traces to an almost unnecessary length the origin of the Sabbath, this is amply compensated by the clear and rational account of its use and importance, and the exhortation to keep it holy.

The



*The fatal Consequences and the general Sources of Anarchy. A Discourse on Isaiah xxix. 1—5. The Substance of which was preached in the Old Grey Friars' Church, before the Magistrates of Edinburgh, 2d September, 1792. By John Erskine, D. D. one of the Ministers of Edinburgh. 8vo. 6d. Gray. 1793.*

The purest impartiality, and zeal for the true interests of the kingdom, seem to have prompted the venerable author of this sermon, in its composition. The miseries of anarchy are justly depicted; but not as a matter which regards France only. The errors and defects of our government, and the degeneracy of our manners, are pointed out with a bold candour. We have seldom read a political sermon with more satisfaction; and he to whom it can give offence must be pretty far advanced in that bigotry which excludes the operation of common sense.

*Two Letters to the Rev. Matthew Wilks; One, on a Sermon he preached on Wednesday, July 1, 1789, from Isaiah xiv. 9; the other, in Reply to a persecuting Spirit (the Effect thereof), which he did not discover to the Author till near two Years and a Half after the above Letter.*

Mr. Nash, the author of these letters attacks the doctrines of Mr. Wilks, and the dispute at length becomes personal. Preachers, it seems, like wits, 'are game-cocks' to one another, and gratify the bitterness of secret antipathy, by a continual sparring with texts of scripture. Neither the subject of these letters, nor the result of the contest, can interest any but the 'lambs,' as Mr. Nash calls them, 'the weaklings in faith,' who frequent the tabernacle.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

*The Life, and extraordinary Adventures, of James Moleworth Hobart, alias Henry Griffin, alias Lord Massey, the Newmarket Duke of Ormond, &c. Involving a Number of well-known Characters; together with a short Sketch of the early Part of the Life of Doctor Torquid. By N. Dralloc. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Sael. 1794.*

This narrative relates to a person known by different names and titles, which he had occasionally assumed. He was alias Henry Griffin, alias Lord Massey, the Newmarket Duke of Ormond, &c. With his conviction and fate the public is already acquainted. He is said to have been the eldest son of a gentleman who was judge advocate of the province of Virginia, in North America, about thirty years ago. To this account of his life, is prefixed a print of him; which will gratify the curiosity of those who may be interested in the perusal of his adventures.

*The present State of the Thames considered; and a comparative View of Canal and River Navigation. By William Vanderstegen, Esq.*  
8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1794.

The writer of this pamphlet professes himself a strenuous advocate for the improvement of the Thames navigation, in preference to the scheme of navigation by a canal. From this statement of facts, indeed, he appears to have truth on his side; but we cannot more effectually display the motives of the publication than by extracting the following:

“My object is not opposition, but to convince all parties that the navigation of the Thames will be more certain, as safe, and cheaper than any canal; and if so, more beneficial to the two extremes, London and Bristol, and to the public at large, even if we allow that time will be saved in the upward passage; yet that saving will be much lessened by the numerous stoppages to pass the locks and bridges, in so much that the saving will not exceed six hours in a voyage. Accommodation should, undoubtedly, be promoted to individuals, and likewise to the public; the former naturally gives way to the latter, but then the benefit must be great and certain, and the injury small. In this case, if the two extremes are only to be attended to, the greatest injustice will be done, not to individuals, but to considerable towns, already possessed of great trade, and who have long navigated on the Thames, and been the means, in some degree, of enabling the commissioners to improve the navigation as it now is, and to proceed towards its completion. But when it appears, or is at least a doubt, whether it is not for the interest of all parties to continue the course of the Thames, with what pretence can proprietors of lands be requested to suffer their property to be divided, and otherwise much inconvenienced to gratify a whim?”

Those who feel an interest in the decision of this question will find much pertinent matter in these remarks.

*A Short Review of the principal Events of the Campaign 1793.*  
8vo. 1s. Owen. 1794.

If we were to give credit to this pamphlet, in opposition to our senses, we should see nothing but victory and success attending the arms of Britain.—France prostrate at our feet; her armies dissolved; her marine annihilated.—But, alas! how different is the real situation of affairs!





# A P P E N D I X

TO THE

ELEVENTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

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## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Collectio Nova Numorum Cuscorum seu Arabicorum Veterum, CXVI. continens numos plerosque ineditos e Museis Borgiano et Adleriano; digesta et explicata a Jacobo Georgio Christiano Adler, Th. D. et Prof. &c. 4to. Hafniæ. 1792.*

*A New Collection of Cusic, or ancient Arabian Coins, containing CXVI, from the Borgan and Adlerian Museums; most of them unpublished; arranged and explained, by James George Christian Adler, Doctor and Professor of Divinity.*

THE title here given is evidently designed by Dr. Adler to comprehend in one volume, as well the *Museum Cusicum Borgianum Velitris*, printed at Rome, 1782, as the publication now before us; inasmuch as the latter is styled, in a second title-page, *Museum Cusicum Borgianum Velitris. Pars II.* On this ground, therefore, we shall consider the two parts as a whole; and since no notice was taken of the former in our Review, shall present to our readers a retrospect of it.

Few, if any persons, conversant with letters, can be ignorant of the obligations which the literary world are under to Cardinal Borgia, not only for his munificence in collecting whatever is valuable and rare, that can contribute to extend the knowledge of antiquity in its several departments, but also for his solicitude to render universally useful the various acquisitions he hath made. Nor hath he shewn less judgment in respect to the persons selected for the latter purpose, than liberality or skill in the former.

In an address to the reader, which opens the first part of this work, Dr. Adler hath briefly stated the occasion of his undertaking it, and the plan he proposed. The former proceeded from a desire not only of displaying the treasures of this kind which he found in the Borgia Museum, but also from motives of gratitude to its illustrious possessor, for the friendship experienced from him. In prosecuting the work, it was made a principal object to prefix such general information as the materials might afford for a history of coinage amongst the Arabs; and, next, to explain the coins themselves, with as much brevity as the nature of the subject would allow. Accordingly, this part will be found to contain a variety of coins before unknown, not only of the class properly Cufic, but also of Arabic-Greek, and Arabic-Latin; likewise Arabic-Armenian, and Arabic-Georgian; to which are added Arabic seals; a delineation, from an ancient patera, of the celebrated *Caba*; a remarkable monument of the Druses, and a new dissertation on the history of that nation.

The preliminary dissertation on the Cufic coins, sets out with shewing what had been already done towards explaining them, and an illustration of the plan which the author had proposed.

The first notice taken of Arabic coins that Dr. Adler has been able to discover, is in the *Museo de las Medallas desconocidas Espanolas* of Vincenzio Juan de Lastanosa, who, in 1645, published engravings of eight, but without any explanations, and so inaccurately, that not one word on them all can be read. The next was John Henry Hottinger, who in his book *De Cippis Hebraicis* in 1662, inserted various observations on Arabic coins, and copies of some Cufic, but in so rude a style that Löschner, in his work *De Causis linguæ Hebraicæ*, has copied one of them for Samaritan. (See tab. p. 201. fig. 19.)—Elias Brenner, in his *Thesaurus nummorum Sueo-Gothicorum*, 1691, inserted one Cufic coin from a wood-cut, ill executed. In his *Specimen universæ rei nummaricæ antiquæ*, 1691, a single coin of brass was given by Morel, and from him by Gobert (Jobert) in his *Science des Medailles*, but by both erroneously explained. Hadrian Reland, in 1705, published a dissertation, intitled *De nummo Arabico Constantini Pogonati litteris Cuficis signato*, which was inserted by the authors of our Modern Universal History in their first volume, and likewise described by Abbé Barthelemy from the specimen in the royal cabinet. Amongst the Neapolitan coins illustrated by D. Cesare Antonio Vergara, in 1715, are some ill engraved Sicilian, with Latin and Arabic inscriptions. One of these in gold, for its scarcity, merits attention, having on its face WR (that is, Wilhelmus Rex) with DVCAT. APVL. PRINCIPATVS CA, on its circumference:



circumference: on the reverse, APVLIE H.....—Philip Paruta and Leonardi Augustini, in a work intitled *Sicilia Numismatica*, 1733, have cited many Cufic coins, but they are badly copied and worse explained. Olaus Celsius the elder, in the same year, published one ancient Cufic coin in the *Upsal Transactions*, and Birgerod another, in a work *De prisco Septentrionalium in Alexandria mercatu*; but this book Dr. Adler had never seen. Amongst the *Numismata quædam cujuscunque formæ et metalli*, Honorii Arigonii, 1745, are several Arabic coins engraved, but not explained. Father Frölich, in his *Annals of the Kings of Syria*, hath published a coin of the first king of the Turcomans; but a more faithful copy of the same from the king of France's cabinet, was communicated by abbé Barthelemy to our author. Two very ancient Cufic coins in gold, which were dug up at Venice in repairing the church of St. Laurence the Martyr, are engraved amongst the ancient monuments of the Venetian churches, published by *Flaminius Cornelius*. The first of these appears to be older than any hitherto noticed. In the *Pembroke Collection*, 1746, are several Cufic coins, but worse executed than almost any of the rest. Among the coins of the *Bodleian*, one Cufic only has been published by *Wise*, 1750. In the emperor's cabinet at Vienna, some Cufic coins, but not very ancient, were carelessly published, 1753, in the *Leipzig Weekly Commentaries*.

To this account it is added by Dr. Adler, that of all who have gone before him in the same walk, there are but five persons deserving of notice: these are *George Jacob Kehr*, whose golden little tract, *De statu monarchiæ Asiatico-Saracenicæ e nummis Cuficis prope Gedanum effossis*, printed at Leipzig, 1714, and in which various coins of chalifs and princes of the *Samanidæ*, are admirably delineated and learnedly explained, ought to be in the hands of every one who attends to the palæography and history of Arabia. To him succeeded the illustrious Barthelemy, once the glory, but now the disgrace of France, who in a dissertation, amongst the *Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions* for 1759, on the *Figures with which the Arabic Coins are sometimes ornamented*, hath elucidated fifteen of the royal cabinet. *Olaf Gerhard Tychsen*, so well known for his oriental knowledge, hath communicated to Dr. Adler several Cufic coins, chiefly of the *Samanidæ*, engraved by himself. Fifteen Cufic coins have been given by the celebrated traveller *Carsten Niebuhr*, in his *Description of Arabia*, 1782, and others in his voyage, well copied and explained by *Reiske*. Besides these, the late learned *Aurivillius*, in the second Volume of the *Upsal Transactions*, 1775, inserted a dissertation on certain Arabic coins, found in Sweden, which are finely copied in four tables. Supplementary to these may be

mentioned, a disquisition concerning the history, coins, and seals of the Arabians, in the German language, by *Christopher de Murr*, printed at Norimberg, 1770, though no Cufic coin is explained in it.

Having brought down this account to his own undertaking, and mentioned the advantages which suggested the enterprize, he adds, that every Cufic coin in the Borgian collection, hath been most carefully and exactly copied, and that nothing in the illustration of them hath been assumed, without the fullest authority.

Dr. Adler now proceeds to discuss the history of Cufic coins, their origin, antiquity, the various alterations they underwent in their inscriptions and devices, and the means of their dispersion in the North.

Under the denomination, he observes, of Arabian coins, are included all such as exhibit Arabic inscriptions, whether coined in Arabia, Persia, Africa, Spain, or in any of the provinces whither, with the arms and religion of Mahomet, the Arabic language had reached. The most ancient of these are intitled Cufic, from having their inscriptions in that character. This style of writing, which hath been long obsolete, took its name from Cufa, a city of Mesopotamia, conspicuous for the beauty of it, and especially after the time of Mohamed, when the Coran, from being written in that character, rendered it common. On this ground it continued in vogue for *three hundred years*; and on monumental inscriptions and coins, to the *thirteenth* or *fourteenth* century of the Christian æra, and indeed are even still had recourse to in Africa, inasmuch as the bolder lines and turns of these letters are deemed more fitting than the modern to metal or stone. The Arabic coins, therefore, inscribed with these characters, may be considered as including the space of seven centuries, commencing with the seventh of the vulgar æra.

To the time of the chalif Abdolmalek, son of Meruan, who was elected successor of Mahomed in the year of the Hejra 65, (of the vulgar æra 684) the Arabians made use of Parthian and Grecian money, inscribed partly with Greek, partly with Parthian, or ancient Persian, which to this day have remained unexplained; but upon the differences that arose between Abdolmalek and the Greek emperor, the Grecian money was rejected, and by the assistance of a Jew, whom the Arabians called *Somior*, being prevailed upon by Hegias, son of Joseph the commander of his troops, this chalif is said to have first coined in his kingdom Arabic money, in the year of the Hejra 66; of Christ 695. This is asserted on the authority of Elmakin, a celebrated Arabian author. Of these coins, however, none have been found. From the same historian it



is also inferred, that the first coinage took place, not at Damascus, but in the Irak and at Waset.

After tracing the progress of coining in Abasia, Cufa, Anbar, Bagdad, and other places, Dr. Adler passes on to Spain, Africa, Egypt, Transoxana, and Persia, observing, that almost all the specimens of these coins which have occurred, with others of earlier date, were dug up in the northern regions; are rarely found in the east; and even the Cufic less often than the rest. In the year 1654, a large quantity was turned out by the plough at Volini, a village in Pomerania, and many of them melted. In 1664, many were discovered near Colberg in the same country; as were more in 1733, and about the same time in Sweden, Prussia, and other provinces; but how or when they found their way thither, since none of them have been found in Italy and France, countries so much nearer, is a question hard to be solved. Kehr supposes those discovered in Prussia, were carried thither by some knight of the Teutonic order, on his return from the Saracen wars. Barthelémy conjectures that they came thither with the Tartars and Moguls, some from the holy wars, and others from the incursions of the northern nations in Africa. Dr. Adler, however, thinks it more probable that this dispersion originated from commerce; and proceeds to observe, that as Samarcand and Bochara were in the middle ages renowned for the extent of their traffic, so it has happened that the greater part of the coins found, were coined in these cities. He further cites HUET *Histoire du Commerce et de la Navigation des Anciens*, to shew that there was not only an yearly resort from the cities of Persia and India, but that merchants came thither from Muscovy, as well as that ships were sent with merchandize to the ports of the Baltic, through the Oxus \* from the Caspian sea, and thence by the Wolga into Muscovy. The distribution afterward from the Baltic ports into the interior countries, is what would follow of course.

From this digression, Dr. Adler returns to Persia, and, commencing with its conquest by the *Buidi*, in the year of the Hejra 321, (of the vulgar æra 932) marks the districts into

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\* MILTON, every where learned, in describing the prospect set before our Saviour by the Tempter, hath particularly marked such cities and regions as were connected by traffic; and instances, amongst others;

— Samarcand by Oxus, Temir's throne;

and thence

To Agra and Labor of great Mogul,

Down to the golden Chersonese; or where

The Persian in Ecbatan sat; or since

In Hispahan: or where the Russian czar

In Moscow, or the sultan in Bizance, &c.

which it was divided by them, one branch of whom were masters of Persia, the Arabian Irak, Cuzistan, Oman, Musul, and Diarkeber; a second governed Bagdad, and a third Irak-Adgemi. The prince of Bagdad obtained from the chalif leave to establish public prayers and to coin money. They were succeeded by the descendants of Selgiuc, who first came as shepherds under the conduct of Michael, his son, into Persia and Corasan, with their flocks, and subjected all the provinces from Syria to Cansegar. Togrul-beg, son of Michael, their first prince, having married the chalif's daughter, was saluted sultan at Bagdad, (in the year of the Hejra 448) but his family, unmindful of the kindness, ravaged Bagdad itself. From this time (497) the kingdom was split into five parts, which formed the kingdoms of Persia, Kerman, Iconium, (called by the Arabians, *Coni*) and the other cities from Laodicæa to the Hellespont, Aleppo, and Damascus. The third king of Persia, Malecschah, (elected 465, year of Christ 1072) first assumed the title of *Prince of the Faithful*, which till then was peculiar to the chalif.

By this race money was coined. Giateddin, in particular, surnamed Kaikofru, who died in the year of Christ 744, having married a daughter of the king of Georgia, was desirous of impressing her figure on his money, but was advised to prefer the figure of a lion with the sun upon it, as expressive at once of his own horoscope, and the honour he meant to confer on his wife, the lion being the known symbol of valour, and the sun of perfect beauty. From this circumstance, Dr. Adler goes on to consider the various ornaments of these coins, and after several acute and pertinent observations, remarks that, all of these coins having figures, hitherto found, are of brass; as also that the custom of impressing figures, ceased, after two or three centuries at most. Hence, an important rule is deduced, by which the antiquity of Arabic or Cufic coins may be judged, inasmuch as the oldest and most numerous coins of the Arabians have, on either side, verses from the Coran, to which the names of the king and city, with the date, are added on the circumference. Those, however, struck by the chalifs whilst the empire flourished, have neither name nor city, but only their dates. On the other hand, all coins which exhibit another name in addition to that of the chalif, either on the same or opposite side, were stricken by governors formerly subject to the chalif, or in general such princes as acknowledged the chalif for the true successor of Mahomed; whilst those, which have the name of the prince alone, are of such as disputed the chalif's title, or for the most part belonged to the barbarous Turkish kings. The Fatemidan princes assume not the title of chalif, but only of *Prince of the Faithful*.



*Faithful.* Other kings take the title *malee*, (that is, of king) but seldom that of sultan. The coins of the descendants of Saladin, who reigned in Egypt and other provinces, are easily distinguished by the various lines, like stars, by which they are adorned. Coins of later times, with figures and images, are of Selgiuc or Turcoman princes.

In respect to the metal of these coins, the most ancient are of gold and silver; seldom in the first centuries of the Mahomedans, were there any of brass. Those of gold were called

دنانير *denarii*, and of silver دراهم *drachmæ*; but the

former not being uniformly of the same purity, were further distinguished by the addition of the chalif's name upon them. From the twelfth century of the vulgar æra, brass coins became common, and those of gold and silver rare. In the Borgian collection, are five coins of glass; whether, however, they were considered as money, Dr. Adler justly doubts. To us, Mr. Tychsen's conjecture in respect to them (see our last Appendix, p. 488.) appears highly probable.

As to the use and value of the Cufic coins, which is the next object of inquiry, Dr. Adler remarks, that though discussions like his should be productive of no benefit to letters, this advantage would result, at least, from them, that others would be saved a repetition of the labour; at the same time that the voyager feels pleasure, and, on returning to his native country, will receive praise, though the island he hath discovered should never be tilled.—In respect, however, to the coins in question, it may be said that there is scarce one which does not clear up some mystery in the Arabian history. The inscription exhibits the time and place of coinage, with the name of the prince. But beside these general uses, it is evident that much light is reflected by the Cufic money on manners and customs. From the present collection, it will appear that the Aiubite princes that governed at Aleppo, were not, as De Guigné, in his *Histoire des Huns*, asserts, absolute; but, on the contrary, were subject to the kings of Damascus. Vestiges of the commerce that anciently subsisted between Bochara and other cities, with those on the Baltic, the Cufic coins, ploughed up in the north, point out. They shew also that the emperors of Africa, Egypt, and Sicily, descendants of Fatima, who assumed the title of chalifs, were not like those of Damascus and Bagdad, Sunnites, but Schiïtes; and thence evince the enmity of the first against the chalifs of Bagdad, to have proceeded from religious zeal. They strikingly confirm the custom of the Turks, so learnedly explained by abbé Barthélemy, of transferring the figures and devices of the Greek and Latin coins of Christians to their own, subjoining certain

marks and signs of computation. Lastly, they shew that those princes of the Arabs who did homage to the chalifs, were not content with naming them in their prayers, but by the inscriptions on their coins, testified whose authority they admitted as chalif.

To the geographer, the ancient coins of the Arabians will be of material importance, since from them the proper names of places may be learnt, as well as the divisions of districts and their principal cities. Nor will the epochs of them and of kingdoms be any longer unknown, as the times of their becoming seats of governments, and being furnished with mints, will obviously be gathered from them.

Nor are these coins of use only in respect to history, geography, and chronology; for it will be easily perceived that the paleography of the Arabians, and philology in general, will be greatly benefited by them.

As to the origin of the Cufic character, it is known from Arabian authors whose works are unpublished, that *Marar*, son of *Marra*, مرار بن مرة الانباري a little before the

time of Mohamed, began to write the Arabic language in Syriac characters, or to change the ancient Arabic into a resemblance of the Syriac. This custom began to prevail first at Hirta, a city of Mesopotamia, near Cufa; whence it passed to Mecca, and at length, the Coran having been written in these characters, they were diffused through all Arabia, and all the provinces conquered by the Arabians. Their use being first established at Cufa, they thence obtained the name of Cufensian, or Cufic. These characters, it is observable, were gross and large, written by a style or point, instead of a slit pen, wide, angular, distinguished where they resemble each other by diacritical marks, and at length ornamented by red points, which served for vowels. But as use in all alphabets introduces variations, so this has not retained its original forms. The Arabians, from too scrupulous an attention to the beauty of writing, by various little lines and ornaments, made such additions as disguised the character so much, that at first view, it assumed the appearance of a new one, and became greatly inferior to the simplicity and majesty of the genuine Cufic. This style of writing has been named by Europeans *Carmatic*, but inaccurately, since in the manuscript Lexicon of Firufabad, the Carmatic characters are termed *thin* and *fine*. The ancient Arabic coins are chiefly adorned with the Cufic; whilst sepulchral monuments, and the like, exhibit the Carmatic: this rule, however, is not universal. As, however, the finer strokes of these letters cannot be formed in metal or stone, it became necessary to introduce such variations as were compatible with both,



both, and thence a slight difference arose between the characters of inscriptions and books, which, in exploring the Cufic coins, has been the source of considerable perplexity. After a digression of some length hence resulting, Dr. Adler goes on to observe, from a Borgian coin, that the first evidence of the use of ciphers, or numeral notes, by the Arabians, is referable to the year 1189. Now, as in all the other Cufic coins, the date is expressed by words at length, and it being the practice of later times with the Arabs to date by numeral notes, a probable conclusion is drawn as to the time of the change. The vulgar tradition states that the Arabians learned this practice from the Indians, in their wars of the eleventh century. This opinion, however, has no other support than the admission of the Arabians, that these numerals were of Indian origin. To the Indians, as their inventors, they are ascribed by *Al Sephadi*. *Kircher* represents them as so many sections of the circle invented by the Brachmans; and *Maximus Planudes*, who lived in the thirteenth century, intitles his *Arithmetic* (of which the MS. is in the Vatican) *πλαινδης ἀριθμοφωρτα κατ' ΙΝΔΟΥΣ*—according to the INDIANS. When, however, the Arabians adopted them, is not absolutely certain. The coin of the Cardinal is, nevertheless, of the utmost value, as retaining the earliest evidence of their use.—Observations follow on the use of these signs by the Romans, Greeks, and Egyptians.

From this subject Dr. Adler reverts to the Arabic alphabet, and presents some general observations upon it, which have much more than their novelty to recommend them. The various changes which this alphabet has undergone, he divides into three periods, with respect, indeed, not to the changes of the letters as to form, and the time of them, but as to their number and order.

The remotest origin of these characters is enveloped in darkness; but Dr. Adler is induced to suppose that they were seventeen only in number, without any marks of distinction, but pronounced with a variety of accents as circumstances required; and of the same number will the present alphabet be seen to consist, if the diacritical signs be removed:

ا ب ح د ر س ص ط ع و ك ل م و ه ي ن

Yet what was the original form of these letters, must remain for ever unknown.

In later times, inconvenience having been experienced from this simplicity, additions were made to favour pronunciation, and the first augmentation of this kind, was that which preceded the Cufic, called by the Arabians *مسنن* *Mosnad*.

Hence

Hence began the second period, probably comprehending the first age of the Cufic, of which it is doubtful whether any genuine monuments remain. The Arabians at that time began to dispose of their letters, which corresponded in number, in the same order with the Hebrew; yet so as not to add new forms to the characters of the alphabet, but only new signs to some of the letters. Thus arose a series of letters conformable to the Hebrew, and which on that account was styled *Abgad Heves*, a word expressive of the six first letters of the alphabet arranged in the Hebrew order.—

The third period extends from the Cufic to our own time. The Arabians having applied themselves, before the birth of Mohamed, to the improvement of their language, introduced a variety of superfluous rules and subtle distinctions of grammar, and added new signs to their alphabet, for the purpose of accenting every modification of the voice, and determining the articulation by a written distinction. Hence arose an alphabet of XXVIII letters, disposed according to similitude of figure, and as they occur in present use. The signs added ث *tse*, pronounced like *ts*, ح *cha*, somewhat stronger than the Arabic *ha*; ذ *dsal*, like *ds*; ض *dad*, like *d* hard; ظ *dza*, almost in the same manner as *dsal*; and غ *gain*, which before ا, o, u, answers to *g*. These niceties, however, of pronunciation, are only observed by the more learned grammarians, and that chiefly in reciting the poets. In familiar conversation some (as ث and ذ) are never distinguished, others (as ظ) are seldom or but obscurely (as ح) accented, *dad* and *gain* excepted, which seem to be generally received.

To the foregoing remarks, Dr. Adler has annexed a philological and critical observation on the Cufic coins, which is of too much importance to be entirely omitted.

It is well known that the Arabian grammarians prescribe it as an inviolable law, to write an *aleph* quiescent in the participle of verbs (for instance قاتل), in the third conjugation (قاتل), at the end of the third person plural of the preterite (قتلوا), and apocopated future (يقتلوا); likewise in the plural of feminines, (as قاتلات), and in سلام, مياه, دينار, واحد, with some others. These rules have been adopted in all our present grammars. It is, however, evident from



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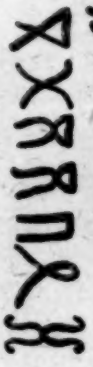



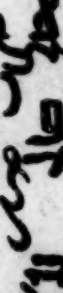

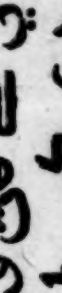
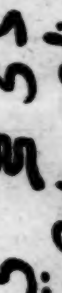
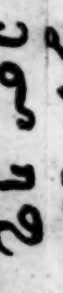
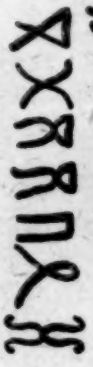
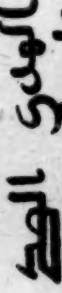



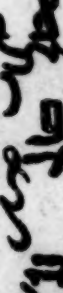

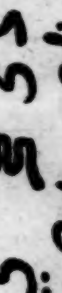
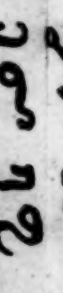
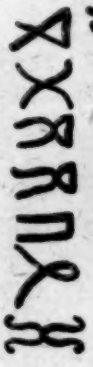
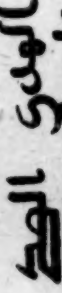



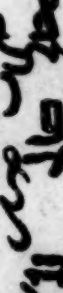

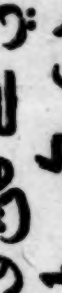
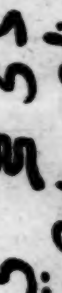
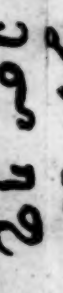
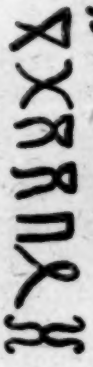



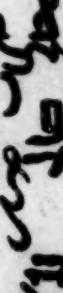

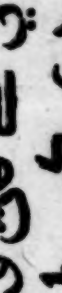
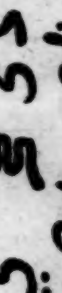
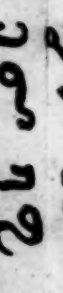



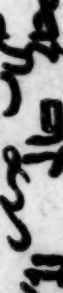

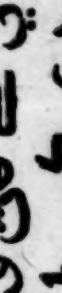
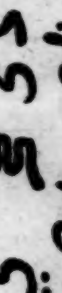
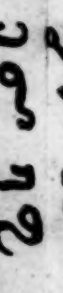
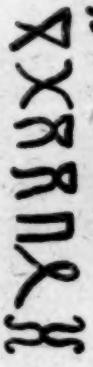
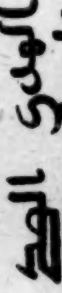



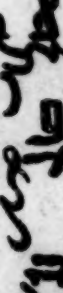

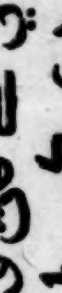
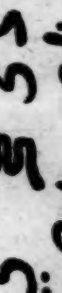
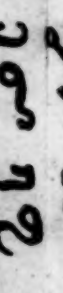
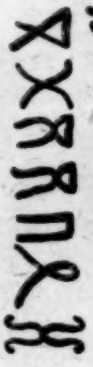
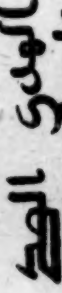



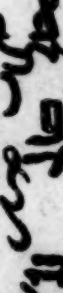

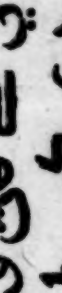
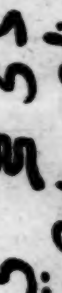
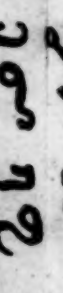
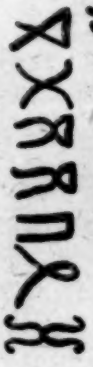
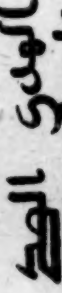



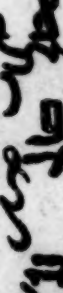

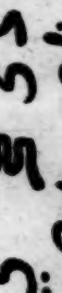
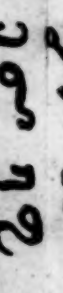
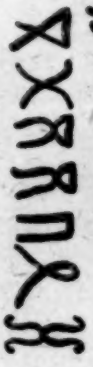
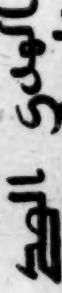




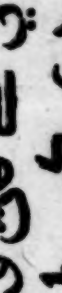
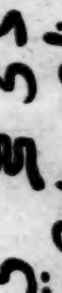
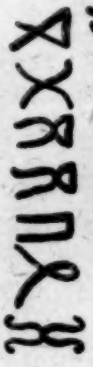
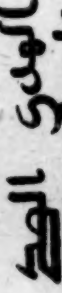


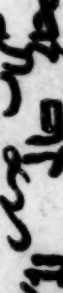
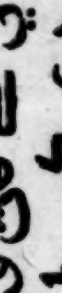
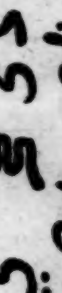
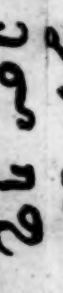
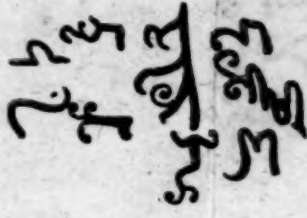

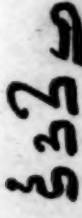
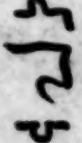
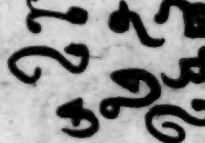


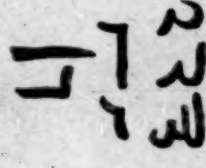
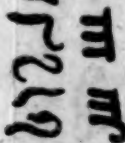
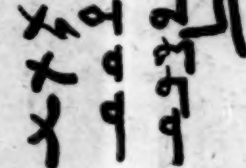
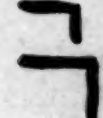

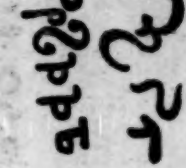

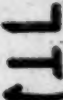
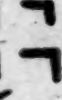
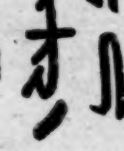

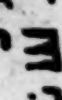


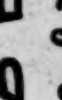
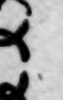
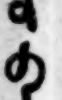
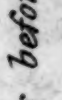
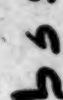
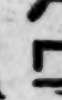
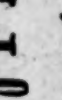
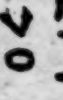
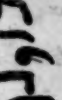
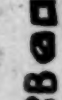
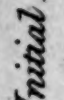






















eminines, (as قاتلات), and in سلام, مايه,

دينا, with some others. These rules have been

all our present grammars. It is, however, evident  
from



The CUFIC ALPHABET taken from COINS, compared with the CUFIC ALPHABET as found in MANUSCRIPTS.

Particular Forms	Ornamented Letters of the Common Cufic	From Coins Finals	Initials	M S.
<p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p> <p>           </p>	<p>        </p>	<p>        </p>	<p>                     </p>	<p>                      </p>

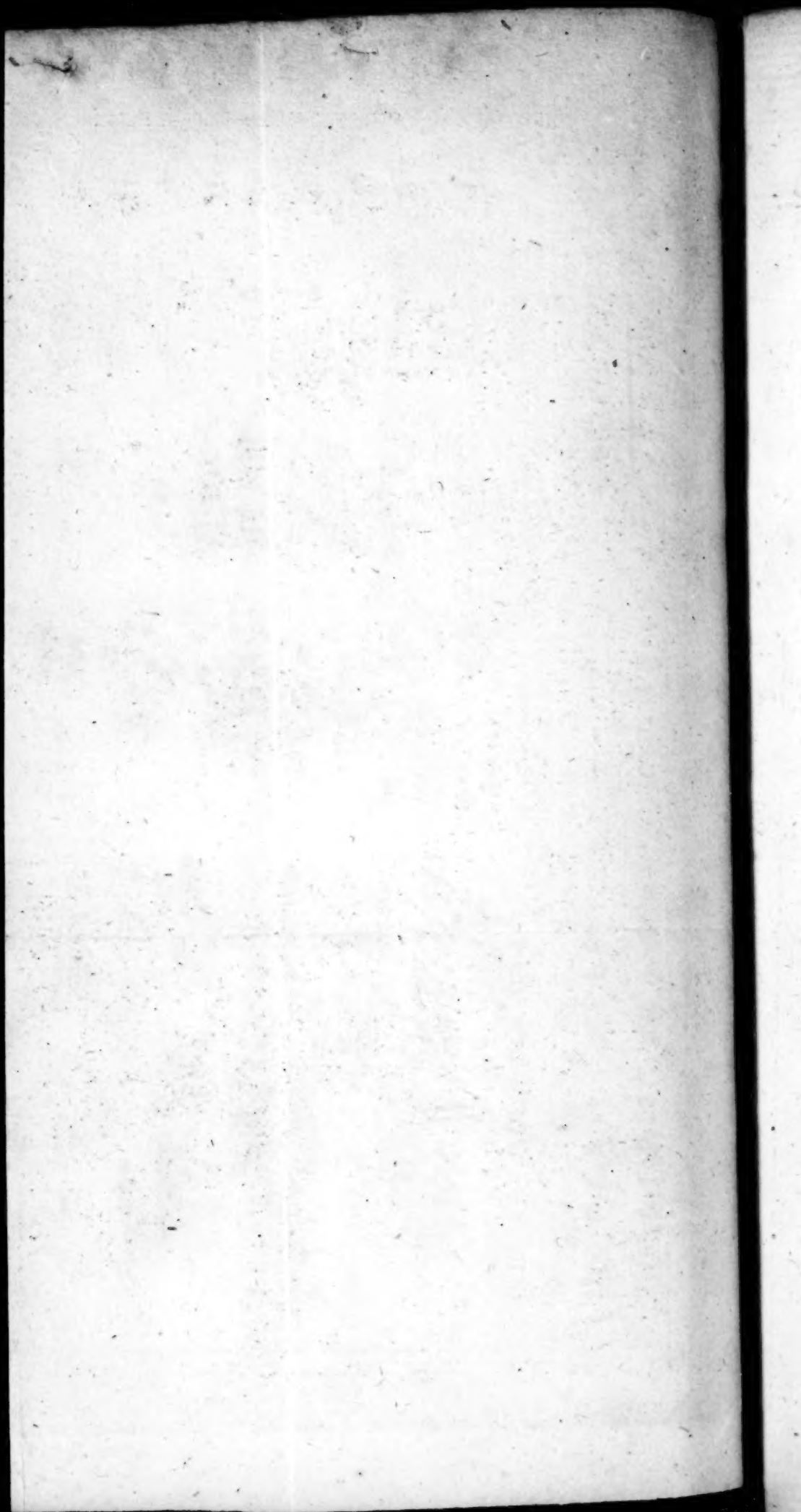
Notes of Numbers compared with those of different nations.

Egyptian 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0  
from Mummies

Indian 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

Arabic & Persian  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0  
or 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

Our own  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0





from the Cufic coins, that the quiescent letters were added or left out at pleasure. The traces of this custom are observable in an Arabic-Samaritan MS. of the Barberini library, containing the text and versions of the Pentateuch, for the use of the Samaritans. More frequent instances of such omissions occur in Cufic MSS. and from some of these coins the time may be found when the custom of adding the quiescent letters began to prevail. Till 1030 of the vulgar æra, the quiescent *aleph* was omitted. The first instance of its being expressed, is in 1203. It is known from the history of Chalcian, that the Arabic grammar was reduced to form by Abulassuad al-Dauli, in the beginning of the eighth century, and at that time the orthography of the Arabians was free from these subtleties. How far this observation may contribute to a more perfect insight into the genius of the Arabic language, which has a much nearer affinity to the Hebrew than is commonly supposed; how far it may aid the grammar of the Hebrew language in reference to such arbitrary changes of orthography; of what use it may be to Biblical criticism, and what an abundant crop of various readings thus originating from the insertions of transcribers may be removed, every competent judge may decide.

From these examples and others, Dr. Adler appeals to the public, whether he hath too highly appreciated the worth of the coins he hath here undertaken to publish.

The copious account we have thus given of the introductory part of this work, precludes us from expatiating in the manner we could wish on other topics interspersed; but having here submitted to our readers what appeared to us most generally interesting, we must be brief in our notice of the rest.

The coins, gems, and seals, with the monument of the Druses, occupy more than twelve quarto plates of the first part, and above seven plates of coins, &c. are subjoined to the second.

For the dissertation on the origin and history of the Druses, and the other incidental disquisitions, we must refer our readers to the work itself. — As the former part, however, was printed in Italy, and the latter in Germany, the difficulty of procuring them has induced us to copy the fac-simile collection of alphabets, which will be found of considerable use. See a copper-plate engraving annexed.

*Bildnisse, &c.—Portraits of illustrious Germans. (Continued from  
Vol. IX. p. 552.)*

**T**HE next portrait is that of Bodmer, one of the most copious writers of his æra. He was born at Zurich in 1698, and seemed, from his infancy, born for the sciences, and particularly the belles lettres, to which his sequestered life probably led him. A wretched translation of the *Metamorphoses* of Ovid, early filled his mind with poetical images. Bodmer, with little information respecting science, and little opportunities of forming his taste, except from reading the ancient classics, like the younger students of that period, began to make Greek and Latin verses, at twelve years, without knowing the graces of his own language. He studied philosophy in Bayle and Montaigne. Grave and concentered, as it were, in himself, he was old, even in his youth, and less sociable, as well as less gay, than at the age of eighty.

Few poets escape the shafts of love. Bodmer loved in the gallant, romantic manner of his age. If his young companions spoke licentiously of the flame, he blushed like a virgin, and, with the most intemperate, drank water only. His love of study kept him at a distance from business, and the professorship of history and politics, was the only public office that he thought suitable to his character and pursuits. It must be however remarked, that the peculiarity, probably the eccentricity of his customs and doctrines, rendered him a teacher, by no means popular. He seems to have taught no consistent system. His pupils were allowed to think for themselves: he taught them to examine the human mind, and this science he applied to historical investigations. He brought back the ancients from their tombs, to examine their manners, their laws, their genius, and their language. His historical works were few, for, instead of moral and political reflections, he was required to be a mere annalist, while in his opinion, the historian should be a man of the world, a statesman, a politician, and a philosopher; impartial and cold as a judge, ardent and eager as an advocate. He wrote the history of his own country, in the form of a play, as Haller and Rousseau have treated of politics and philosophy in the form of romances. Indeed his play may be styled political dialogues; calculated for reading, rather than representation; estimable for the genius and the judgment, rather than for the manners and the imagination. There were, in these, some pathetic scenes and dramas on different subjects, but they were the fruits of his latter labours: his early works were didactic or critical.



In his time, barbarism yet kept the world in chains of darkness and ignorance; but the reign of Gottsched was near its termination; and Cramer, Gostner, Giseck, Klopstock, Gellert, Sclegel, Rabener, &c. with whom Bodmer was secretly connected, succeeded. Our author was fifty years old, before he became a poet; and the circumstance which roused his genius, was the death of his son. Rhyme, and the burthen of Alexandrines, were insupportable; and it was only when Klopstock had introduced the hexameter, that his principal works were composed. The examples of Milton and Klopstock seem to have led him to sacred poetry, assisted indeed by some other German attempts. His chosen hero was Noah; and his machinery, like that of Milton and Klopstock, good and bad angels. The time, when the patriarch was supposed to be confined to the ark, is employed in conference with an angel, who explains to him the revolutions of future ages. Bodmer's critical talents prevailed over his self-love. He owned, that he had not sufficiently proved his hero, and allowed that the Abbadonah of Klopstock was of more value than all the ideas of the Noachide.

The other poems of Bodmer have been collected in a large volume, under the title of Calliope, or the Apollinaria. The titles of some of these are, the Deluge, Dinah, the Return of Jacob, Jacob and Rachael, and Joseph. Zilla is wholly original: the subject is the fall of a man to another planet: there the woman only errs; the man continues faithful to the injunctions, and God gives him another Eve. In the Columbina, the Spaniards are represented as gentle and humane, while the Americans are supposed to receive them with the most innocent hospitality. The rape of Helen, the rape of Europa, Parcival, Inkle, Monimia, the Hermite, &c. are only translations; but they are not servile copies, for Bodmer has added much of his own. He also translated Milton, and joined to his poetry a critical eulogy.

When Bodmer read the first Canto of the Messiah, he was unacquainted with the author, but he thought him almost an angel, communicating a celestial vision. When he discovered Klopstock, he brought him to Zurich, and to his own house. The old man, who loved a tranquil and a retired life, trembled at seeing his young friend surrounded, and happy, with the lively and the gay. He thought the poet of the Messiah a celestial being, and was jealous at seeing the young angel familiar with the sons of men: every pleasure seemed a transgression against his noble and poetic calling; and the patriarch, whose manners were truly patriarchal, felt great pain when he saw his young pupil yield to terrestrial pleasures.

Notwith-

Notwithstanding the austerity of Bodmer's principles, and his antipathy to those who sang of love, he could still like Gleim, Hagedorn, and their poems. He himself would leave Olympus, and play with the doves of Cythera: it was sufficient to obtain his indulgence, that the love poems had some traits of originality, and contained some moral reflections. The biographer observes, that, in his 80th year, he had seen Tibullus, Petronias, La Fontaine, and Boccace, on his table. 'Those,' he adds, 'who have lived freely in their youth, are cold and severe in their old age, and are censorious from finding themselves exhausted.' Bodmer, on the contrary, with a pure heart, and a body not worn down by sensual enjoyments, was young at the age of eighty. He was then more civil to the poets of love and wine, than at an earlier period.

Bodmer was consoled for the departure of Klopstock, by the arrival of Wieland, who at least, did not find Zurich, the cave of Trophonius, for he began only to sing of the sylvan deities, and of love, after this visit. Bodmer gave to Wieland the poem of Zilla, as of an unknown author. Wieland was enraptured with it, and spoke of it in the highest terms to some literary friends, quoting different passages. From accident or design, they were of a contrary opinion, and almost persuaded him, that it had no merit. On his return, seeing the MS. on the table, he seized it, and threw it behind the door. Bodmer, who had been present at the whole, was highly entertained. Indeed the situation was not peculiar to our veteran. The first edition of the Noachide was published, without the name of the author; and one of his friends, a celebrated critic, far from suspecting the truth, sent him a very severe criticism on it, requesting him to procure its publication. Bodmer assisted his own condemnation, and it required the utmost exertions of the critic, who soon discovered the author of the poem, to prevent his work from being known. On another occasion, Bodmer lent to a man of some eminence, a very interesting series of Letters on Politics and Philosophy, with Dr. Zellweger. By some chance, these papers reached a grocer's shop, and Bodmer received some leaves in this way. He hastened to the grocer, and recovered his treasure, but never showed the least resentment to his friend on the occasion.

With the greater number of people, toleration and complaisance lessen with age: in Bodmer, they acquired new strength. He owed to the extraordinary vivacity of his imagination, and his perfect complaisance, the liveliness of his temper, and the facility with which, even at an advanced period of life, his mind opened to new views and impressions.

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He received persons of every description with equal ease; but, though he was complaisant as a man, he was severe as a critic. Every man, in his individual capacity, should, he thought, be pardoned for his faults; but as an author, their influence was extensive, and they might even injure posterity, so that the errors should be closely examined: the best authors, he thought, required an examination still more severe and rigorous, as their errors are least suspected and most widely disseminated. In his critical works, he prevented disgust, from the variety and knowledge displayed. He thought a good style of little importance, if the work was not intrinsically good. He compared it to beautiful features, which neither discovered sensibility nor intelligence. Among modern works, he preferred those of Rousseau, and Sulzer's Theory of the fine Arts. He there discovered himself in his whole force.

The epic muse visited him again in his old age. He wrote *Conrade of Swabia*, *Hedwig of Gleichen*, *Hildebort*, *Mary of Brabant*, and *William of Orange*. In these poems, we find the genius of the provençals: the subjects are generally borrowed, but the form is wholly his own. He translated some passages of the *Æneid*; but the sublimity of Homer was more congenial to his temper than the milder majesty of Virgil. At the age of seventy-seven, he undertook a poetical translation of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, and it is said to be valuable, even by his rivals. He says, speaking of his translation of Apollonius, it would be too bold to alledge, 'that the hoary head of eighty years can have communicated light and life to the Argonauts; but he may observe, that Apollonius has inspired the decrepid body of his translator, with rays that invigorate, that animate.'

Bodmer preserved the same genius and constitution to the end of his life. A little before his death, a slight fever confined him to his bed.—'I cannot walk, said he to his physician, as I could three or four years since.' A weakness of his lungs, prevented him from speaking much, and he sunk peaceably, the 2d of January, 1783, at the age of eighty-five.

Haller is known to the world as a physician: of late only we have heard of him as a poet, and in his latter character, we shall now chiefly notice him. Our readers, who now hear of Haller for the first time, will never discover that he was an anatomist and a physiologist of such extensive fame, that these labours were alone sufficient to have filled a long life. At the age of seven, the young Haller had made complete collections of all that he had read: at twelve, he had studied Bayle and Moreri, and, in imitation of them, he wrote the lives of one hundred literary men. Poetry was his favourite amusement,

amusement: he composed verses and epigrams, in different languages, and even made an epic poem of 4000 verses. Of this attempt, however, we have no remains. Haller was afterwards as indifferent to the amusements of his youth, as he was then enthusiastic in their pursuit. When a fire happened once in his neighbourhood, he left his whole property to save himself, with his poetical treasure. This attention greatly affected his character. He would not come out of his chamber, for some months, and was considered as a poor creature, capable of no useful attempt. Having visited Holland, England, and France, he returned to Switzerland; and had made so great a progress in mathematics, under Bernouilli, that, on the day of his marriage, he was engaged in a fluxional calculation. He travelled through Switzerland with Gesner, canon of Zurich, and increased his passion for botany. It is to his botanical excursions that we owe his poem on the Alps, published in 1729; a poem, says his biographer, 'as sublime and durable as the mountains it celebrates.' He has mixed occasionally, in the picture, the magnificent scenery of nature, and has painted the most sublime philosophy in the most brilliant colours. He can give importance to the smallest objects, for he thus describes the Gentian; and it must not be concealed, though we do not mention it disrespectfully, that we here trace the prototype of the 'Loves of the Plants.'

'The noble Gentian raises his lofty head above a crowd of vulgar, creeping plants; a whole tribe of flowers ranges under his standard: even his brother, covered with his blue mantle, is prostrate in honour and adoration. The dazzling gold of his flowers creeps in radiant streams, embraces his stalk, and crowns his robe of sober grey. The polished whiteness of his leaves, radiated with a deep green, shines with the splendor of a liquid diamond. With the strictest justice, it combines virtue with beauty, and this charming form contains qualities yet more delightful.'

How noble is the following character! 'Soon after, an aged fire began: his grey hairs added a new energy to his words. Our eyes have known him: the enormous weight of a whole century has bent his body, but added vigour to his soul—a living example of the heroes of our ancestors, who carried thunder in their hands, and God in their hearts. He talks of war; numbers the standards taken from the enemy; draws the outline of the camp; and recollects the name of each brigade. The young men, full of admiration, hearken with attention, while, in their gestures, may be read a noble impatience to emulate and excel him.'



In the same year, he published his *Epistle on Reason, Superstition, and Incredulity*. Haller observes, in his preface, 'that this piece was a kind of trial of skill, to shew, that the German language was as well adapted to the composition of a philosophical poem, as the English. In this work, he has inserted a greater number of historical anecdotes than any other. Piqued with his bold invectives against superstition and fanaticism, some zealots have charged him with incredulity.—Haller accused of infidelity! he who had superintended an edition of the Bible!—Haller, who, in his religious works, has deserved the reproach of a too timid orthodoxy!

In 1730, Haller dedicated to professor Stakelin, a second work, on the Fallacy of human Virtues. In 1734, an excellent poem appeared, on the Origin of Evil. Haller preferred it to his other works. How beautifully the scene opens! The most abstract truth shines with its most brilliant lustre, under the creative eye of the poet: the night of chaos disappears, and becomes the brightest day!

In 1731, he wrote the *New Cato*, a satire against the corruption of manners. What fertility of invention in his portraits! what truth in his description of customs! We shall quote only the character of Appius.

'Who will unite science with truth? who will follow the footsteps of those great men, whose loss is most severely felt, in the cause of virtue?

'It will not be Appius, who, in his pompous deportment, in his discourse and his looks, seems intent only to display his greatness and his power. His gate is not open to every one; he deigns not to look on the world in general. Right must yield to his authority; his orders must be laws; master of his fellow citizens, he is not master of himself. But, take away this borrowed lustre, and the hero disappears: he is no longer different from us. Internally, he is but a common mind, supported by pride; a superb palace, whose apartments are empty.

'Will it be Sicinus? this dabbler in politics, who believes that he deals out wisdom, and alone possesses common sense; who thinks nothing reasonable that he has not suggested, and would disapprove of his own sentiments, in the mouth of another. Sometimes he complains that punishments are too severe; sometimes that the course of vice is unrestrained. He compares our state, one day to that of Zug; the next, to Venice. Who can be sure of his approbation in matters of government, who finds always rewards misapplied, and refusals unjust?'—We shall add only the beginning of the satire, on the Man of the Age.

‘Tell me, O——, why our hearts are become so cold, and so insensible? The name of virtue is forgotten: it is an idle tale among the fashionable. Morality and Quixotism are on a level, and those are laughed at, who refuse themselves any pleasure, or love any one but themselves.’

Such was Haller the poet, who, as an anatomist, a physician, a physiologist, and a botanist, possessed more extensive erudition, and has written more works of labour and genius, than one man seems capable of completing.

Frederick Hagedorn was born at Hamburgh in 1708. His father was minister from the king of Denmark to the circles of Lower Saxony, and was a man well informed, capable of giving an excellent education to his son. He was also rich enough to keep an open table for men of letters, and his own taste led him to prefer poets. Young Hagedorn, therefore, breathed the air of poetry, and soon discovered an admiration of the beauties of nature, and a fondness for a country life, so seductive to a poetical mind. His fondness for rural scenes had once nearly cost him his life; but the ruin of his father, from an inundation, and too imprudent zeal for a faithless friend, were subjects of greater importance in his early years. He died, when our poet was only fourteen, and his affectionate mother tried to repair the loss, by a careful education, and repeated examples of virtue.

Frederick was placed in a college of Hamburgh, in a state very different from that he had experienced with his father, and was sometimes as poor as a poet need be. To the delicacy of feeling he inherited from his parents, he added a firmness, derived from misfortune. However gloomy the future appeared, he never lost his gaiety. Poetry was still his mistress, and he read the antient, as well as the modern poets, with eagerness and assiduity. Without the help of a master, or the salutary assistance of criticism, he drew from his own stock the power of dissipating the fogs of dulness in the north, as Haller had done in the south of Germany.

Besides his early poetry, Hagedorn published, in 1728, some other pieces much valued.—‘An Ode on Wine,’ another entitled, ‘the Young Man,’ ‘the Apotheosis, or Russia Triumphant, &c.’ The last was collected in the Miscellany, consisting of his earliest works. In the preface to this collection, his style seems not sufficiently formed. His modesty, however, requires the warmest commendation. ‘The most careful inquiry has,’ he observes, ‘taught me, how much labour is requisite to render a work perfect. It must be remembered, that we are to appear before the tribunal of posterity, an inexorable judge, whose opinions are more uncertain than those of our contemporaries. I perceive that it is  
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necessary to unite softness with depth; animation, with arrangements and reflection; language, select and expressive, with new thoughts; in fact, nature with art. I have consequently grown more dissatisfied with my works, and have frequently resumed the file. In the dearth of my invention, my muse has often envied the ready prattling of many German pelletiers, who produce, without pain, their unripe fruits, which cost more ink than time or reflection. Those of my friends, who have excited me to publish my works, I regarded as seducers, and, two years since, I wanted courage to comply with the request of a philosopher, who joined in the same request.'

Hagedorn next proceeds to scatter his praises a little injudiciously, so as to show that he had no taste for true poetic beauty. Yet his satire, entitled 'The Poet,' displays a correct taste, but a mind not yet free from prejudice. He there puts Pietsch by the side of Virgil. Indeed, in his first attempts, we generally perceive the author to be very young: though his versification be free, his language often very pure, the thoughts are frequently cold, and the expression too concise. In subjects which require little taste and philosophy, he has succeeded better than in works of sentiment and imagination. In 1729, he composed, without printing them, some excellent songs.

About this period, he came to London, with the Danish ambassador, baron Stoenenthal, but he was not seduced by an English muse. He here composed some of his most beautiful odes, and his best songs. In 1732, he lost his other most valuable parent. Frederic, at his return from England, not finding his brother, a most able cultivator of the fine arts, in Hamburgh, followed him to Italy. They were together at Genoa, where they embraced for the last time. The conclusion of a Moral Poem on 'Friendship,' is a true monument of their fraternal affection.

In 1733, Hagedorn was appointed secretary of the English factory at Hamburgh, which united him with our countrymen, whom he always esteemed. He expresses with a philosophic content, and a masculine energy, his happiness in his poem of the 'Wishes.' In 1734, he married an Englishwoman of the name of Butler, whose chief fortune was an amiable and a good heart. Frederick esteemed her virtues, but regretted that he could not make her happy. His poetical epicurism, and his love for liberty, were almost incompatible with the marriage yoke; and yet he still admitted more lively deities.

In 1738, he published the first volume of his Fables. This work is original. He was no longer a servile copyist, trifling,  
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prolix,

prolix, and monotonous. His narrative was indeed sometimes extensive, but never tedious. His manner is declamatory, rather than dramatic or epic; and oratorical, rather than picturesque. He is often sententious, his moral is pure, and his irony truly Socratic. He is not, in general, an original; and the authors quoted are seldom the true sources, but objects of comparison.

In 1740, he composed the beautiful Satire of the Philosopher; in 1741, the sublime picture of the 'Sage;' in 1742, the Universal Prayer, from the Paraphrase of Pope; and, in 1743, his celebrated poem on 'Happiness.' This last piece is equally favourable to his opinions and his poetical talents. His modest muse does not succeed in sublime descriptions, or the dithyrambic flights: it has more of the elegance that pleases, than the splendor that dazzles; more Socratic wisdom, than oriental sublimity. His Moral Poems are like the Sermones of Horace. His 'Considerations on some of the Attributes of God,' contains the sublimest passages of Scripture: 'The Prattler,' is a dialogue, full of familiar descriptions of human life: 'The Letter to a Friend,' is an instructive commentary on the 'Nil Admirari' of Horace. Various other pieces followed; but, in 1750, the sage Moral Poet first excited the gaiety of his nation, by mixing sports and graces with the solemn poetry of the Germans. His odes and songs are highly pleasing. Nature, sprightliness, simplicity, enthusiasm, and harmony, unite to render them seductive: for spirit and elegance, he may be said to resemble our own Prior. The preface contains a sound and judicious criticism on his predecessors. He is often indeed too mild; but he was too great himself to seek to humiliate others.

The second edition of his 'Moral Poems' appeared in 1752, with a considerable supplement, and many new epigrams. In 1754, was published, an enlarged edition of his songs, with a translation of two discourses, on the songs of the Greeks, by Ebert. In this year, he died of a dropy; and, in his greatest torments, he consoled himself with the muses. 'Once, says he, it was friendship that drew tears from my eyes: it is now my own pains, which makes me shed those of affliction. Wisdom will not disapprove of them, for we may be allowed to be friends to ourselves.'

In another place, he observes, 'nothing, my dear Sophron, is made in vain; adversity renders us wiser, and exercises us in the moment of affliction. Our soul cannot yield without a contest, and though we should not gain the victory, misfortune is always of use, since it teaches us the most difficult of lessons—it teaches us to die.'

*Obser-*



*Observations sur la Nature et sur le Traitement de la Phthisie Pulmonaire, par Antoine Portal, Professeur de Medicine au College de France, d'Anatomie et de Chirurgie, au Jardin National des Plantes, des Académies des Sciences de Paris, de Bologne, de Turin, de Padoue, de Harlem, de Montpellier, et d'Edimbourg. 5 liv. Paris.*

*Observations on the Nature and Treatment of the Pulmonary Consumption, by Anthony Portal, Professor of Medicine, at the College of France, and of Anatomy and Surgery, at the National Botanic Garden, Member of the Academy of Sciences of Paris, of Bologne, of Turin, of Padua, of Harlem, of Montpellier, and of Edinburgh. 5s. Paris.*

**I**F medicine has made considerable progress in this age, it is chiefly indebted for its advancement to particular treatises; and among the most effectual means of promoting the science, is that of attending closely to the nature and theory of some one disease.

M. Portal, well known by his History of Anatomy and by other works, has given, in the work before us, a new proof of his indefatigable zeal and correct investigation. Amongst the authors who have written on the pulmonary consumption, none has appeared who has been sufficiently attentive to the various forms which are assumed by this fatal disease. Hoffman, Van Sweiten, and Lieutaud, have spoken of the pulmonary consumption; but their theories have little corresponded with the symptoms; and they have only presented dark ideas and general principles. Let us attend to our author in the introduction to his work. It is to Morton, and to the modern nosologists, to Sauvages, that we owe the most important observations on the different species of this disorder; but even this judicious writer has scarcely been sufficiently attentive to the pathology, and has not made a sufficient use of the lights which dissection might have afforded. Chemistry, moreover, had not as yet opened the eyes of physicians on the trifling remedies with which they fatigued their patients; and from this circumstance Morton himself had but vague ideas, and those commonly erroneous, on the action of those numerous remedies which he has prescribed. The formulas with which his work abounds, offer frequently only a monstrous collection of drugs, whose effect ought mutually to destroy each other, or to produce very different results from these which were intended. This present work is divided into two parts; the first contains fourteen sections, and treats of the various kinds of pulmonary consumption. The first of these has for its object the scrophulous and hereditary consumption.

sumption. On the opening of subjects who have fallen under the hereditary or scrophulous consumption, the author has almost universally found tubercles of different sizes in the lungs. These tubercles were in general more or less advanced towards inflammation and suppuration. They form tumours, the ichorous, and the purulent. Sometimes the small tumours participate of the nature of scirrhus, and their existence is manifested only by a dry cough. They commonly terminate in ulcers, which corrode and destroy the lungs. In the hereditary and scrophulous consumption, considerable induration is also frequently found in the lungs. The air vessels, as well as the blood vessels, are so much narrowed that it is not easy to discover the cavity. The exterior conformation almost always bears the sad prognostic of this fatal disease—a delicate and slender shape; the dimensions of the breast narrow, and the shoulders raised and almost compressed together, are commonly the external signs of an hereditary consumption. These defects of conformation have often very quick and fatal termination, even before the body has arrived at maturity; whilst the second kind of consumption attacks indifferently all ages. The characteristic symptoms of the original consumption are, a dry cough, accompanied with a slow fever, and more or less oppression at the breast; a purulent expectoration, and an enlargement of the lymphatic glands. The author afterwards enters on a digression very interesting, upon this question, Is the pulmonary consumption contagious? After having noticed the opinions of several physicians who have been afraid to open the body of a consumptive person, he confesses having hesitated a long time to make a similar experiment; but his indefatigable zeal for the progress of the healing art, his ardour for the advancement of the sciences which have an immediate connection with the animal economy, besides the conviction of the utility of the undertaking, induced him to surmount his natural repugnance; and he has never experienced any symptom of this disorder. He has therefore destroyed the opinion that the contact even of persons cloaths was sufficient to communicate this complaint, and attributes, with reason, this contagion to a vicious organic disposition already pre-existing in the system. The method of cure adopted by M. de Portal, has always been conformed to the indication, and his means have been exhausted in the vegetable kingdom. He has advised the juice of aperient plants, soft and refreshing drink, and proscribed milk and all inflammatory food.

The object of the second section of this work is the plethoric consumption. We may easily discover in this disease, that the vessels of the lungs are obstructed by an inflammatory diathesis



diathesis which determines them to ulceration and suppuration. This disorder is very common. The excess of blood, which ought to be carried off by the menstruation in female patients; difficulty of breathing, swellings of the lower parts, are the most usual symptoms of this consumption. Men are not exempt from this superabundance of blood; but nature, always provident, assists them frequently by piles. Excess in regimen or exercise will occasion this consumption; and as its proximate cause is the enlargement of the blood vessels, its fatal consequences may be prevented by bleeding in the beginning of the disorder. The author forbids hot remedies, nourishing food, and ferruginous waters. He orders very light food, refreshing vegetables, and acrid drinks, if the cough does not oppose it.

Under the third section we find the consumption, which succeeds exanthematous fevers and other cutaneous eruptions, comprehending those in consequence of bad agues, or irruptions of the skin, as the small-pox, the measles, the erysipelas, the miliary, scarlet, and other exanthematous fevers. At the opening of the body in these kinds of consumption, the lungs are found swelled, and as it were injected with a black blood, they adhere to the pleura: there are neither tubercles nor pock-marks, but often redness, lividness, and even a gangrenous inflammation. In this case our author advises to have recourse on the first symptoms, to bleeding; and as a means of prevention, blistering, or the cautery; gentle sudorifics, water, beef soup, and milk, constitute his principal remedies.

The catarrhal consumption is the subject of the fourth section. After having explained the different alterations of the bronchial and lymphatic glands found in the subjects he examined, such as ulceration, more or less, scirrhus, abscesses on the organs of respiration, &c. M. Portal proceeds to state some general facts. Children and phlegmatic persons are often affected with catarrhs or colds; the pituitous membrane then strains out a quantity of pituitous matter. This excretion intercepts itself, and from it results the enlargement of the glands, and thence the bronchial consumption. The author advises in this case ipecacuanha in the beginning. He prescribes also mineral and sulphureous waters, and asses milk.

In the fifth section, the author treats of the consumption which succeeds inflammatory disorders of the breast. This consumption is very common, especially when the peripneumony has not been skilfully treated. The remedies ought to be directed according to the nature of the pulmonary congestion, indicated by the constitution of the body. If it is plethoric, it is necessary to destroy the inflammatory dis-

positions by letting blood, by attenuant drinks, relaxing and light refreshments. If it is in a state of languor, or a relaxation of the solids, it is necessary to employ stimulants and blisters, in order to extract the morbid humour which corrupts the lymph.

The sixth section treats of the consumption which succeeds the asthma. After giving some advice, not according to Sauvages, upon the characteristics of the asthmatic consumption, our author founds his theory upon the facts stated in his Memoir to the Academy of Sciences, upon the bronchial glands, in the year 1781. He denies in some measure the irritability and the contractability of the lungs, which is admitted by Morton, and states many anatomical facts and experiments upon living animals.

In this complaint he thinks a phlogistic regimen is to be avoided, and recommends farinaceous fruits and milk, also attenuant drinks and fluids rendered gently stimulant, according to circumstances. Consumptions he also thinks may be sometimes avoided by diluting or dissolving the stagnant humour in the lungs. The state of the pulse ought not to be lost sight of through the whole of the complaint.

The seventh section treats of the arthritic or rheumatic consumption. Experience has convinced M. Portal of the extreme mobility of the arthritic and rheumatic humour, retained, as he supposes, in the mass of blood. It is always, he imagines, a burden to nature, when the excremental matters have not been evacuated. It ceases not to disturb the harmony of the natural functions, and it torments them by its abundance or by its morbid qualities. Our author is of opinion that this disease may be considered under the character of a true inflammation, of which the issue is often fatal, and the progress so rapid, that all the assistance that art can bring is often insufficient to retard it. We are far from having a positive knowledge of the nature of this humour. It is, he observes, by considering the different excretions, by observing the phenomena it produces, the alterations it undergoes, that we can acquire exact ideas upon the treatment which is proper for it. Our author has always had regard to the weakness or irritation of the lungs in adapting his prescriptions. The juice of succory plants, rendered stimulant by kermes; the oxymel of squills, in case of an cedematous swelling; the extract of aconite; the mineral waters of Barges, of Bonnes, of Cauterets; white meat, when the enlargement of the breast no longer exists; are all recommended by our author, according to the nature of the case.

The eighth section considers the different nature of the excretions found in the organs of respiration. The pneumo-



monic stone, in persons who appear little disposed to a consumption, is, perhaps, concomitant of this disorder, though it may not have been preceded by spitting of blood. The introduction of a foreign matter, dust for example, mixing with a glutinous humour, forms concretions, obstructs the air-pipes, and disturbs the respiration.

The ninth section treats of the scorbutic consumption. After having detailed some observations which appear to him of particular note, relative to the successful treatment of this disease, the author proceeds to some very important remarks upon this kind of consumption. The scorbutic affection announces itself in different parts of the body, by the swelling of the gums, of the tongue, of the upper part of the palate. These symptoms are often succeeded or accompanied by swellings at the extremities, and the face, by extreme lassitude, and at length by leanness and atrophy; the cough is less ardent than in other cases, and not continual; the matter expectorated is marked with bloody streaks; the pulse is weak and a little inflamed. The disorder is tedious, and does not propagate in families. In the breasts of persons who die scorbutic, an overflowing of water is often found; the breast is swelled, flabby, and impregnated with a bloody and serous humour. The muscular system has in these cases a weak texture, the heart is softened, the substance of the brain is filled with serous matter, the bones often of the roof of the mouth, and of the inferior jaw-bone, are affected with rickets, and the teeth are black, rough, and apparently increased in bulk.

Change of air is good against the scurvy; the bitter extracts of plants, of elicampane, of fumitory, of cresses, of trefoil, hydromel, oxymel, and acids in general, are indicated.

The tenth section comprehends the venereal consumption. The lungs are very susceptible of alteration from the action of the venereal virus, because of the great number of lymphatic vessels in that organ. The venereal contagion not only originates, but often accelerates the pulmonary consumption. The suppression of gonorrhœa, by styptic injections in the urethra, has often given rise to this disorder. The expectoration is then viscous, and often purulent; and if this matter proceeds from the lungs, the complaint is then dangerous. The author relates, that having been consulted respecting a child, the presumptive heir of a kingdom, which was infected with the venereal poison by his nurse, he advised, in concert with other celebrated physicians, to administer to him mercury, having previously approved its effects upon the nurse. The antivenereal treatment, administered in too strong doses, occasions a ptialisme, followed with cough, difficulty of  
breath-

breathing, and, in short, all the symptoms of a true consumption. M. Portal has opened several bodies affected with the venereal virus. The lungs adhered to the pleura, and were full of concretions, of a viscous humour, thick and whitish. The vessels of this viscus were loaded with blood, the bronchia, the windpipe, and the glands of the larynx, were inflated with a reddish matter.

The pulmonary consumption which succeeds fevers, constitutes the subject of the eleventh section. Continual fevers, as well as intermittent and malignant, degenerate sometimes into a consumption; a deposit or congestion in the lungs produces this dreadful affliction, of which M. Portal describes the symptoms, and relates some important observations. The lungs are commonly hard and enlarged; their surface is unequal and embossed, and their internal substance full of concretions, and in such a state of suppuration that the viscus falls away in actual rottenness. The obstruction of the breast terminates itself by suppuration, if art does not operate towards its resolution. Jesuits bark ought not to be given in this case; but relaxants and aperients.

The twelfth section concerns the nervous, the hypochondriacal, and hysterical consumption. The extreme sensibility of the nervous system, our author says, produces a tension in many viscera. The animal functions are deranged, and local ruptures are the common consequences of this disorder in the animal œconomy. The hysteria is also often the prelude to a consumption; the lungs in this case are contracted and confined, and there is a congestion in the vessels of the chest, whence an inflammatory disposition and suppuration of the thorax. The melancholy attendant on this complaint often produces a short respiration, painful, interrupted, and a stagnant humour in the lungs. Circulation becomes more difficult and less active, from the spasms of the diaphragm. The texture of the viscera is then enlarged, indurated, and becomes compact, and the morbid affection spreads itself upon the lungs. Refreshing fluids, aperients, bitters, seconded by a careful regimen and exercise, are the most efficacious means the author has employed.

The thirteenth section has for its object the consumption in consequence of parturition. Pregnancy has often retarded the progress of a consumption; but commonly, after lying-in, the symptoms return with violence and produce death in a short time.

The fourteenth section contains some observations upon those consumptions which succeed contusions and wounds of the breast. This section terminates the first part of the work, and in it the author has made a judicious application



tion of the principles which he has developed in the preceding.

The second part is divided into five sections. The first treats of the symptoms of consumptions in general, and of those appearances which serve to determine the species. He has noted three degrees in the pulmonary consumption. It is essential to know the symptoms well, in order to establish a diagnosis which cannot be equivocal. The first state is indicated by spitting of blood, dry cough, frequent yawning, glutinous spitting, the body becoming emaciated, slow fever, heat, and dryness of the skin. The face is commonly pale, except in the time of paroxysms, when we perceive upon each cheek a distinct spot of clear vermilion. In this stage, the urine is clear and abundant. The sleep is interrupted, the voice is rough, sometimes almost extinct, and there is a heat in the breath. In the second stage these symptoms augment. The expectorations are more viscous, copious, and bloody. The cough is more obstinate. The difficulty of breathing greater. The urine less abundant and of a deeper colour. The patient is subject to frequent nausea and afterwards vomiting. In the third stage of the disorder, the fever is stronger, the leanness and delicacy augment; perspiration becomes painful; the nocturnal sweats are viscous and foetid: these are succeeded by diarrhoea: the urine is scarce and very red. The feet, the hands, the face, &c. are affected with œdematous swellings. The hair falls, and the nails assume a hooked form, and a bluish colour. The expectorated matter resembles polypuses; it is tough and membranous; death often comes suddenly upon the patient in this state.

The author indicates afterwards the variety of modes in which the consumption may fatally terminate. It may exist without ulceration of the lungs; he abscess, without expectoration of pus may occasion death; and there have been patients who only spit at this fatal moment. The physician ought to establish his diagnostic, his prognostic, and his treatment, from observing the general symptoms, the complex of which furnishes indications more certain of the complaint than the existence of any one alone: so variable and uncertain is this disease.

The author also indicates the difference and the effects of hemorrhages in consumptions: sometimes, says he, the openings of the smaller vessels occasion frightful hemorrhage; at other times the greater vessels have been destroyed as well as a great part of the lungs, without almost any hemorrhage; which sufficiently proves that the prognosis of these sort of ailments cannot be the same in all cases.

Our author afterwards speaks of the consumption which is

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breathing, and, in short, all the symptoms of a true consumption. M. Portal has opened several bodies affected with the venereal virus. The lungs adhered to the pleura, and were full of concretions, of a viscous humour, thick and whitish. The vessels of this viscus were loaded with blood, the bronchia, the windpipe, and the glands of the larynx, were inflated with a reddish matter.

The pulmonary consumption which succeeds fevers, constitutes the subject of the eleventh section. Continual fevers, as well as intermittent and malignant, degenerate sometimes into a consumption; a deposit or congestion in the lungs produces this dreadful affliction, of which M. Portal describes the symptoms, and relates some important observations. The lungs are commonly hard and enlarged; their surface is unequal and embossed, and their internal substance full of concretions, and in such a state of suppuration that the viscus falls away in actual rottenness. The obstruction of the breast terminates itself by suppuration, if art does not operate towards its resolution. Jesuits bark ought not to be given in this case; but relaxants and aperients.

The twelfth section concerns the nervous, the hypochondriacal, and hysterical consumption. The extreme sensibility of the nervous system, our author says, produces a tension in many viscera. The animal functions are deranged, and local ruptures are the common consequences of this disorder in the animal œconomy. The hysteria is also often the prelude to a consumption; the lungs in this case are contracted and confined, and there is a congestion in the vessels of the chest, whence an inflammatory disposition and suppuration of the thorax. The melancholy attendant on this complaint often produces a short respiration, painful, interrupted, and a stagnant humour in the lungs. Circulation becomes more difficult and less active, from the spasms of the diaphragm. The texture of the viscera is then enlarged, indurated, and becomes compact, and the morbid affection spreads itself upon the lungs. Refreshing fluids, aperients, bitters, seconded by a careful regimen and exercise, are the most efficacious means the author has employed.

The thirteenth section has for its object the consumption in consequence of parturition. Pregnancy has often retarded the progress of a consumption; but commonly, after lying-in, the symptoms return with violence and produce death in a short time.

The fourteenth section contains some observations upon those consumptions which succeed contusions and wounds of the breast. This section terminates the first part of the work, and in it the author has made a judicious application



tion of the principles which he has developed in the preceding.

The second part is divided into five sections. The first treats of the symptoms of consumptions in general, and of those appearances which serve to determine the species. He has noted three degrees in the pulmonary consumption. It is essential to know the symptoms well, in order to establish a diagnosis which cannot be equivocal. The first state is indicated by spitting of blood, dry cough, frequent yawning, glutinous spitting, the body becoming emaciated, slow fever, heat, and dryness of the skin. The face is commonly pale, except in the time of paroxysms, when we perceive upon each cheek a distinct spot of clear vermilion. In this stage, the urine is clear and abundant. The sleep is interrupted, the voice is rough, sometimes almost extinct, and there is a heat in the breath. In the second stage these symptoms augment. The expectorations are more viscous, copious, and bloody. The cough is more obstinate. The difficulty of breathing greater. The urine less abundant and of a deeper colour. The patient is subject to frequent nausea and afterwards vomiting. In the third stage of the disorder, the fever is stronger, the leanness and delicacy augment; perspiration becomes painful; the nocturnal sweats are viscous and foetid: these are succeeded by diarrhoea: the urine is scarce and very red. The feet, the hands, the face, &c. are affected with œdematous swellings. The hair falls, and the nails assume a hooked form, and a bluish colour. The expectorated matter resembles polypuses; it is tough and membranous; death often comes suddenly upon the patient in this state.

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connected with disorders of the liver; and as this is very frequent, he bestows particular attention on it. The swelling of the right lobe, gives occasion to an extension of the right wing of the diaphragm and the compression of the lungs. An effusion in the right cavity of the thorax produces equally this effect. The liver protrudes considerably above the false ribs in these consumptions; when the right lobe is every day enlarged, says the author, we are apt to suspect from the feel, obstructions in the hypochondria of those who have an enlargement in the liver, which induces physicians to neglect the real disorder, while they attempt to treat another which does not exist. The works of Baillieu, Bonnet, Morgagni, and Lieutaud, have sufficiently exposed these errors.

In the second section, the usual duration of the pulmonary consumption is discussed. There is considerable difference in the progress of consumptions according to its species; to the age, to the constitution, to the sex of the patients, and of course according to the different accidents which may happen. The scorbutic, scrophulous, catarrhus, rheumatic, and gouty consumptions, are in general the longest in duration. The exanthematous are more rapid. That which comes after suppressions of blood, are the soonest mortal. The rapidity of this disorder is much greater when the subjects are young.

In the third section, our author communicates the researches that he has made upon the blood of consumptive patients. The mass of blood diminishes very soon in all these cases. The author says that he has found a very small quantity in the bodies of those who have died consumptive. He has neglected nothing to throw light on this object. He has also made some experiments, by mixing the blood with the pus, in a vase, and he has been able in a little time to dissolve it, and to annihilate all the red globules. Bile produces the same effect. Lime-water diminishes the density. The tartar of potash produces the same phenomena, but with less efficacy.

The fourth section is the result of repeated dissections, and we are able to pronounce of this part, that it is anatomy usefully applied to medicine. This, however, does not admit of analysis.

In the fifth section, M. P. makes some observations upon the treatment of the pulmonary consumption in the last stage. Divers causes may produce this complaint, consequently it is necessary to vary the treatment, and to combine the following circumstances, the age, the sex, and the constitution. When the organic rupture is such that it leads to the last degree of consumption, there is no other than the palliative method left to follow. The use of attenuant drinks, barley-water, chicken and beef broth, light emulsions and juleps are recommended,



mended, with waters distilled from lettuces, purslain, and other similar plants mixed with syrup of orgeat, of gooseberries, &c. by extinguishing the heat and lessening the systaltick force in the vessels, the suppuration he conceives is diminished. Heating and stimulant remedies he considers as fatal at this epoch of the disorder: though with some inconsistency he excepts the preparations of opium, which when there is not an habitual disposition to sweat, he has found to succeed very commonly.

In speaking of fumigations, the author has not been seduced by the eulogium that some physicians have passed upon them. Travelling, on the contrary, and the respiration of the pure air upon the mountains and in the woods, he considers as very salutary. With all kinds of consumptions, however, the same air cannot agree. The sea air succeeds with hereditary and scrophulous consumptions. It is injurious to the scorbutic consumption, which commonly finds relief in the southern climates.

Stimulant remedies, which are found so useful in the beginning of the illness, would be very injurious in the last period. Sudorifics in particular ought no more to be employed. The author opposes strenuously a phlogistic regimen in this state. The lightest nourishment, ripe fruits, and light acid drinks, are the only modes of affording relief in this fatal state.

Such is the best analysis which our limits permit us to present of this interesting publication, which on the whole is well deserving the attention of the young practitioner. The work is certainly highly useful, considered as a history of the disease; and the anatomical researches evince equally the attention and ability of our author—But when we have said this, we have said all we can in commendation. From what has been exhibited in this sketch, the reader will perceive that our author is a theorist, and his theory, we will venture to say, is the worst that ever degraded and perverted medicine; the *humoral pathology*, we repeat, has done more injury to mankind, and afforded more scope to quackery, than all the other dreams of physicians and nosologists. It is long and justly exploded in the British schools, and we are surprised to find the physiologists of the continent still labouring in the trammels of this absurd system. The simple vegetable remedies which our author prescribes are trifling, and must be ineffectual; and though he recommends stimulants in some of the early stages of the disease, they are evidently such as can produce no salutary effect, but must rather increase that debility, which it is the great object of the physician to combat and to overcome.

We have our doubts whether even his treatment in the latter stages, is at all judicious.—From our own experience we  
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can say, that the palliative system recommended by M. Portal, can only contribute to the momentary ease of the patient, or perhaps to protract existence for a few days or weeks at the farthest.—But surely if there is a time when experiments are warranted, it is in this hopeless state; if there is a time when the physician is warranted in departing from that cautious practice which in all cases, where there is any promise or expectation, he ought steadily to pursue, it is this. In a word, it is a melancholy truth, that almost the whole of the usual practice is found to be inefficacious in this deplorable disease; there is none therefore which calls more urgently for the attention and investigation of ingenious and scientific men, and to these the work of M. Portal, though far from perfect, will doubtless afford considerable assistance.

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*Dissertation sur les Variétés Nouvelles qui caractérise la Physiognomie des Hommes des divers Climats, Ouvrage de Pierre Camper.—(Continued from Vol. VII. New Arrangement, p. 487.)*

*A Dissertation on the Natural Varieties, which characterise the Physiognomy of Men in different Climates, &c.*

WE return with pleasure to our very ingenious author, after an interval longer than we intended should have intervened. To the first part of our article, we must refer the reader, for the general remarks, the design of the author, and the advantages that may attend his profound and judicious researches. We shall now proceed without any farther introduction.

The first chapter of the second part contains ‘Observations on the Features of Infants viewed in Profile.’ The objects of comparison are, the head of an infant just born, one of a year old, another of an adult, and another of a very old woman who had lost her teeth. From the time of the birth, the forehead projects, and the back part of the head enlarges, so it rests on a more horizontal basis. The upper jaw is wider and more forward. The chin enlarges and projects. The ancients usually, in their sculpture, made the chins of their infants too long. The little distance between the jaw and the bone of the nose, always makes the faces of infants flat. The heads of new born infants are always longer than they are high: the children of the Low Countries have their heads longer than others, as Vesalius remarks; but, in the antiques, the head is more shortened, as the facial line falls farther forward. J. de Wit, however, though greatly celebrated for having



having painted infants very gracefully, does not attend to this peculiarity: he has only shortned the back part of the head, in raising its upper part. If the facial line is thrown a little forward, the center of motion changes, and the heads, a little more inclined, seem more graceful. Albert Durer makes the facial line form an angle of  $95^{\circ}$ ; Quesnoy and De Wit bring it forward so as to form the angle of  $100^{\circ}$ ; and, in this position, the height must necessarily be greater. The mastoid apophysis also changes its situation in different periods; but this is a circumstance of less importance.

In the adult, the nose is more prominent; and our author chiefly notices the projection of the nasal bones, which forms the aquiline nose; a construction that gives an agreeable form to the face, though neither the Negro nor the Asiatics can boast of it. For this reason, it is never seen in the antiques, nor could the Grecian artist give it to his figure, as the nose is always perpendicular. As the anterior part of the nose of Europeans is wider than in other people, it seems longer than it really is, particularly in those who are thin. The nostrils are usually visible, because the base of the nose is in an horizontal direction.

In old age, the teeth and the sockets both decay; and the palate, instead of an arch, forms a plain surface: the lower jaw is not equally high, and the capacity of the mouth, which usually contains the tongue, is greatly diminished. The nose, losing its support, becomes more aquiline; and the enlargement of the frontal sinus adds to the sinking of the eye. The distance from the chin to the nose becomes one-sixth shorter, so that they appear to touch each other; a circumstance, that even Rubens and De Wit have not preserved. Bloemaard followed nature, but had no idea of the physical changes: the French painter, J. B. Greuze, seems to have been equally careless; while Laireffe, P. Testa, and Raphael, have attended to these circumstances with the exactest care. The raising of the lower jaw draws down the angle of the mouth, and makes the flat muscles of the neck more conspicuous. The direction of the folds or wrinkles are always at right angles to the muscular fibres: they are consequently horizontal in front; diverging in radii round the mouth and eyes; horizontal in the neck, and almost parallel to the contour of the lower jaw. The original changes, are, however, in the bones, and these form the real character of old age.

The chapter 'on the form of infants' faces, seen in front,' is short, but curious. The eyes of infants are large and distant, but not so distant as to admit of another eye between them. In well-formed heads, the horizontal space beyond the eye is not more, on each side, than half the diameter of the eye;

eye; but, in rickety children it is greater; a proof of Buffon's observation, that not only the nature of the climate, but local diseases often change the features of men. The head of an infant then, in width, ought to be four times the diameter of each eye; in other words, capable of containing four eyes. Yet De Wit and Albert Durer make it of the width of five eyes, and this rule every painter has followed. A. Van Dyk, for instance, has given five times the width of the eye to the head of a Christ he painted, as an infant. All the heads of Quesnoy are in the same proportion.

The first chapter of the third part is on the beautiful, particularly on that which results from the features of the face. The general observations we shall not transcribe: we did not take up M. Camper's work for that purpose. His first object is to show, why a man, whose stature is eight times the length of his head, is more beautiful than another but six times as high. 'A Laplander, for instance, is more ugly than a Persian, or a Georgian: is it owing then to this circumstance? By no means; for a child, whose stature is but five times the length of his head, may still be beautiful.' This however is fallacious reasoning: those who are fond of children, see in them grace and beauty: those who are not, find them disproportioned, weak, and unpleasing. It is more to the purpose, when he observes, that the beautiful consists rather in a suitable proportion. In the head of Apollo, of Venus, and of Laocoon, the eyes are placed exactly in the middle of the head, and the distance from the nose to the ear, not exceeding half the length of the head; proportions the ancients always observed, and in these instances pleasing. We know they are so, before we discover, that, in these same proportions, they have corrected the apparent deformities occasioned by vision. This our author has shown at some length; and it is sufficient to give an idea of his reasoning to remark, that, when we look on a level at a face, the lower extremities are fore-shortened:—when we look at a statue on a pedestal, the face is the same: consequently, some statues are eight heads and a half high. Vitruvius found the proportions of the human figure so perfect, that he takes it for the model of buildings, in which all authors have followed him. De Wit, in his copies, which are not indeed faithful, and, in his original drawings, has given the length equal to eight times the head; but, in his figure of the woman, prefixed to his work on designing, nine times that height. The proportions of Rubens are less, and this gives his figures a heavy appearance. In general, the Italian masters make their figures too low; the French much higher; and our ladies seem to agree with the latter, by adding to their heights in the ornaments of their heads, and the dimensions of their heels.

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The real reason of the eight heads being more pleasing is that the height is about double the bulk. The most pleasing column also, the Corinthian, is eight times the height of its capital: the Ionic we like, because it combines the idea of strength; and the Farnese Hercules is, for the same reason, pleasing, though its bulk is more than half its height.

The Laplander, the Tartar, the Hottentot, and the Brazilian, have their heads too large in proportion to their heights: they are Doric columns. The Europeans are Corinthian, and the antiques seem a mean between both. Beauty, as the ancients by their practice seemed to think, depends on rather a lengthened face; for, when looked at sidewise, as it is foreshortened at the top, it should not be square, since, if it *really* was, it would not *appear* so. The ancient heads are also less behind, and seldom wider than four times the diameter of the eye. In us, the distance of the eyes does not exceed the diameter of an eye: in a negro, they approach nearer, and, in a Calmuck, still nearer.

The form of the nose is suitable to the distance of the lateral prominences of the maxillary bones: in a negro, the distance is too great. With us, the nose is usually larger than the distance of the eyes: the ancients make the distance and the size of the nose the same.

The mouth should at least cover the incisores, and consequently is larger in proportion, as these are more distant. The mouth, in the antiques, appears smaller, because the chin is more pointed: it is but very little larger than the extent of the nose. The projection of the nose renders the upper lip smaller: in a negro, and a Kalmuck, it is the contrary. The ancients have given twice the length of the nose, for that of the neck. It is certain, that the Apollo has but one and a half of that length; but, as the nose is larger than usual, had the common rule been followed, the neck would have been the same. De Wit makes the measure of the neck, in infants, one third of the measure of the nose: Quesnoy makes them nearly equal. Another error of De Wit is, his having neglected the double chin, which children constantly have.

The third chapter of this part is entitled 'how the proportions of the head should be established.' Our author's advice is to select the projecting points, where the bone is only covered, and thus to make the bony cranium the foundation of designing. But for the particular management, which can scarcely be abridged, we must refer to the work.

"If any one should now ask, what constitutes a truly beautiful face? I reply, such a disposition of the features, that the facial line shall make an angle of  $100^{\circ}$  with the horizon. The ancient Greeks gave also the preference to this angle, though

their reasons, it is not easy to determine. Certainly such a head has never been discovered. I do not believe it was ever found among the ancient Greeks, among the Egyptians from whom they are descended, the Persians, or the modern Greeks; for, when such faces are spoken of, no medal has ever been mentioned, no example has been produced."

"The beautiful antique then does not exist; but is something purely imaginary. It is what Winkelman calls the beautiful ideal, of which the Grecian artists, in their medals of the emperors, took care to preserve some portion, while they kept as close, as they were able, to the features; and this character will always distinguish a Greek from a Roman medal."

"As there is a maximum, or a ne plus ultra, on one side, there is also a maximum, or a ne plus ultra, on the opposite side. When the facial angle sinks to  $70^{\circ}$ , we have the features of a negro; if lower, those of an ape; if the angle is lost, it is the face of a dog."

"The maximum of the facial line among Europeans, is  $10^{\circ}$  before or behind the perpendicular line: on either side, is deformity. It is, however, probable, that a negro has his kind of beauty, his maximum and minimum; but these I cannot ascertain, as I have not a sufficient number of heads of this race, nor opportunity to compare them with others. If, however, the facial line fell back to  $65^{\circ}$ ; the resemblance would be too near the ape: were it to fall farther back, the ape would come too near the dog."

The ears, in general, are about the size of the nose, that is about one-fourth of the head. They are generally near the middle, and the lobe usually descends a little lower than the line of the nose. De Wit makes the ears too narrow: they vary from a third to a half. The ancients generally conceal the ears: they cannot be made pleasing, and they are seldom drawn correctly; for it is a difficult task, and one generally neglected.

The fourth part is on the principles, by means of which a head may be properly drawn. He here speaks of the oval, the triangle for profiles, and his own method, already hinted at, by means of the skeleton. All these, however, require plates to render them intelligible.

To the translation, which we have preferred, is added, as we formerly observed, a dissertation on the most convenient forms of shoes, of which we shall subjoin a short account. It originated from an observation of Possidonius, who observed, that shoes were probably invented and brought to perfection by philosophers. Our author is of a different opinion, and apologizes for his attempt, by observing, that we attend minutely to the shoes of animals, and neglect our own. 'We lament,



lament; with reason, the misfortunes of a Chinese female, whose feet, by a barbarous confinement, are dislocated; and we submit, even with satisfaction, to a punishment scarcely less cruel. This has continued for many ages, since Celsus and Paulus of Egina speak of diseases of the feet, from the pressure of shoes and sandals, improperly made.

M. Camper remarks, that good shoes are very uncommon; and that shoes should be adopted to the pavement of the city, where the wearer lives. The evil is deeply rooted, for the measures, taken by the shoemaker, are usually defective, since the foot, in walking, lengthens, and again shortens from rest. Experience has also proved, that the heel should be brought farther forward, so as to support the center of gravity. This, however, is a deviation from nature, who has placed the center of gravity on an arch.

Men, it is observed, do not all walk in the same manner; and women, from the difference of their forms, do not walk like men. Children walk in a still different way; and old men, from the body falling forward, are obliged to bend their knees, to preserve the center of gravity on the instep. In the latter stages of pregnancy, women, for a similar reason, throw the upper part of their bodies backward, and generally walk on their heels. The heel of a shoe should be always under the center of gravity. When placed too far under the instep, the center falls behind it; too forward, it throws the weight on the toes. No bad custom prevails in Holland, viz. to make a different shoe for the right, from that destined for the left foot.

The best position for the buckle is on the instep, exactly where the triangular ligament connects the tendons of the extensors of the toes, to the bones of the foot. When they are too large, their figure does not answer to that of the instep, which is not circular, and may produce inconveniencies, if there is not a right and a left buckle; and their curvature is not particularly adapted to that of the instep. Fashion is not always convenient; but we may add, that the present shoe-latchet answers every purpose here mentioned, and is not attended with any of the disadvantages noticed by M. Camper.

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*Mémoires du Comte de Grammont, par Le C. Antoine Hamilton.  
Edition ornée de LXXII Portraits, gravés d'après les Tableaux Originaux. A Londres, chez Edwards, 4to. 1794.*

*Memoirs of the Count de Grammont; by Count Anthony Hamilton: ornamented with Portraits, &c.*

TO this edition is prefixed the advertisement subjoined.  
"Le public a si favorablement accueilli ces Mémoires, que nous avons cru devoir en donner une nouvelle édition,

avec tous les agrémens dont l'ouvrage fût susceptible. Ce livre unique n'a pas besoin d'éloges ; il est, pour ainsi dire, devenu classique dans tous les pays de l'Europe.

Outre les aventures du Comte de Grammont, très piquantes par elles mêmes, ces memoires contiennent l'Histoire Amoureuse de la Cour d'Angleterre, sous le regne de Charles II. Ils sont d'ailleurs écrits d'une maniere si vive, si ingénieuse, qu'ils ne laisseroient pas de plaire infiniment, quand même la matiere en seroit moins interessante.

Les portraits dont on a enrichi cette edition ont été gravés d'après les originaux conservés dans les familles de leurs descendans qui les ont communiqués avec beaucoup d'anecdotes particulières. De plus, on a puisé dans tous les ouvrages historiques contemporains pour donner des notes aussi essentielles à l'histoire du temps, que nécessaires pour jouir pleinement de l'esprit de l'Auteur."

There cannot perhaps be another instance produced in which the talents of a writer are more in unison with his subject, than are those of the celebrated Count Hamilton with the scenes of intrigue he paints. Inasmuch, that he might pertinently address the curious in the language of Shakespeare:

Dost thou love pictures?—We will fetch thee straight  
Adonis, painted by a running brook,  
And Cytherea all in sedges hid,  
Which seem to move and wanton with her breath,  
Even as the waving sedges play with wind.  
—We'll show thee Io, as she was a maid,  
And how she was beguiled and surpriz'd,

AS LIVELY PAINTED AS THE DEED WAS DONE.

Whatever the moral tendency of such pictures may be, they are not without their political use ; since they exhibit the abandoned profligacy of courts and courtiers, and too strikingly confirm the retort, from an handsome emigrant to the heir of a throne : "It is such princes as you, that make DEMOCRATS." Well will it be if the mirror here held up, and the justice of the lady's remark, should open the eyes of those who are most deeply concerned.

The portraits of the most distinguished personages in the court of Charles now first introduced, make a very interesting as well as elegant addition to the memoirs themselves, and the collection of anecdotes contained in the notes leave nothing to be desired that can gratify the curious.

It remains only to notice that the work is finely printed upon the best of paper, and the portraits are executed with fidelity and taste.

It will be proper to observe that a translation of these Memoirs and the notes is printed in the same size and manner, accompanied with the same engravings,



*Saggio sulla Storia Naturale della Provincia del Gran Chaco, &c.*

*An Essay on the Natural History of the Province of Great Chaco, with an Explanation of the Method of Living, and the Customs and Manners of the Inhabitants, Journals of three different Journeys to the internal Parts of this barbarous Country, by the Abbé Joseph Jolis. Faenza, 8vo.*

**W**ITHIN a few years, we have received two accounts of this almost unknown country, the one by M. Dobrzhoffer, entitled the *History of the Abissones*, a warlike nation of horsemen, in Paraguay, which we remember formerly noticing very shortly; and the present attempt, of which we have here only the first volume. We must indeed regret, that neither of these authors are sufficiently acquainted with natural history, to give us satisfaction; a deficiency which Mr. Dobrzhoffer modestly apologizes for, but which the abbé Jolis considers as of little importance. It is enough, he says, if we know, that plants of particular qualities are found in a given place: and the botanical descriptions of the cincona have not increased its febrifuge virtues, and an enthusiast only would neglect objects of importance, to waste his life, like Plumier, in verbal disquisitions. He owns, with little regret, that many vegetables and animals have escaped his memory. His chief objects were to refute the assertions of some celebrated authors, who have accused the climate of a malignant effect on men, as well as animals; and to defend the natives and the European inhabitants from the calumnies published against them, which he thinks he can effectually do, in consequence of his having spent nine years among them. The whole work will be completed in four volumes. In the present, He treats, 1st, of the name and the geography of Chaco; 2dly, its vegetables; 3dly, its quadrupeds; 4thly, its birds; 5thly, its reptiles, fish and insects; 6thly, its nations and inhabitants; 7thly, its colonists.

The name Chaco is derived from the Peruvian, and signifies a variety of animals, and seems to have been applied to this province, on account of its plentiful stock of game. In size, it exceeds Italy, and is placed partly in the torrid and partly in the temperate zone; from eighteen to thirty-one degrees of north latitude, and from 314 to 320 degrees east of Paris. The province chiefly consists of an immense plain, is in some places covered with the thickest woods, sometimes only with scattered palms. On the west, its pastures are fertile, green, and well watered; on the east and south, the grounds are dry, and feel neither the influence of rivers nor rain. On the banks of the rivers, reeds and horse-tail grow in great abundance.

dance. The whole province contains strictly only one mountain, which extends from west to east, is very high, and covered with immense trees, chiefly cedars. From this mountain, the rivers are wholly derived. The other mountains are branches of the Corderillas, one of which is said to contain a large quantity of alum. Another mountain is called, by the Spaniards, Cerro Colorado, from its containing some singular trees, which afford a red paper, of which some account is promised in the second volume.

In a note, the abbé refutes the account of M. Dobrizhoffer, who attributes the saltiness of a rivulet to a plant (probably the *salsola fativa*) which, when wetted, contributes a saltiness to the waters that pass over it. The real cause of this change is, he thinks, vast strata of a saline substance, whose peculiar nature he does not ascertain, but which gives a white appearance to the country at a great distance, and, from its quality, the district is styled Saladillo. He calls it common salt or nitre; but it seems to be fossil alkali. In the mountain Chiquioca, on the east, there is sulphur and talc; in the district just mentioned, the salt; and, in other places, gypsum. Some black, white, and red earths are found in this country, which give their respective colours to cloths and skins, by covering the substance, to be dyed, for a little time with each. Of the rivers in this country, he treats at length. The Rio Ondo is of a red colour, but not so intensely red, as it has been described. Another, from its colour, is called the black river. The waters of the Ledesma are said to occasion strumous swellings in those who drink of them; even in animals. Another, called Dorado, (our readers will recollect the El Dorado of Voltaire) is so styled from the numerous fish of the same name, which it contains, and is of a petrifying quality. A small rivulet is mentioned in the south, which is said to preserve its water untainted, though it runs through a country of saline strata!

There are two lakes, whose effluvia are malignant, described by our author from the relation of others: two other inland lakes, one of which is on the top of a mountain, resembling in appearance the crater of a volcano, are said to contain crocodiles: these are idle stories unworthy the notice of a man of education, as we must suppose our missionary to be. The colour of the green river, whose waters, Lozana says, are sweet, seems probably to arise from copper; and the abbé properly suggests the necessity of caution in their use. The water of another river, which ran through a salt lake, and became useless, was rendered wholesome, by one of the missionaries, who changed its course. Another inconvenience was however found from it, for it produced strumous swellings.

The



The tumours, we are told, the natives cure with salt mixed with tobacco leaves, which are masticated, and perhaps swallowed. The Tucumani, it is said, cure these swellings with the '*lignum strumarum*' or salt roots taken from the sea, because salt kills toads, snails, and other animals containing glutinous matters. The lake of pearls, so called from its being supposed to produce pearls, has now lost its credit, for they are found to be small eggs. A warm sulphur water, whose vapours are supposed to be inflammable, and many other mineral waters are mentioned; but no satisfactory information is given of either. The waters of this country are chiefly salt, selenitic, and petrifying.

The country, though in the torrid zone, is not intensely hot, nor indeed so warm as many provinces of Africa; for, in the east and north, it has periodical rains, which sometimes last three or four months; numerous rivers pass through the province; the lakes and marshes are numerous; and the neighbouring Corderillas are often covered with snow; the woods are thick; the grass luxuriant, and a cool northern wind blows regularly at stated hours, through the day. The winter is often warmer in the southern district, than the summer in the northern, on account of its not possessing these advantages; but the heat is not unpleasant. Snow occasionally occurs in the mountains. A hoar frost is sometimes seen in the night, but scarcely any ice: dew is copious and common. Thunder is most frequent in the winter; hail is very common; earthquakes seldom and slight. The earth is fruitful, producing of wheat from eighty to an hundred, and there are often two harvests, without a second sowing. Zea, maize, produces from five to six hundred, and ripens at farthest in forty days: of this, there are sometimes three or four harvests in a year.

This general account of the country fills ninety-three pages, and is followed by a second book on plants. Of these, we shall notice a very few only. Indeed his work is, in this part, often only a catalogue of the names in the language of the inhabitants, and contains only forty-three pages.

Pepper is cultivated, he tells us, to excite thirst, which the natives quench with copious draughts of beer, of which they are very fond. Among the alimentary plants, there is a species of nettle, with a simple, tall, large, hollow stalk, bearing white pellucid grains in bunches. The milk of figs is innocent, and used to curdle milk. A countryman of our own, Thomas Falconer, a missionary to this country, whose botanical knowledge Dobrizhoffer warmly praises, informed the abbé, that the herb paico was the same with the oriental tea, and it is said to be of use in urinary and calculous complaints.

The use of rhubarb is less common, but their rhubarb is the *rumex alpinus*. A more common purgative, with them, is two or three kernels of the *ficus infernalis* (*Jatropha Curcas*) toasted, and macerated in wine. At the end of this part, which, in our author's hands, is short and uninteresting, indeed much more so than the narrative of Dobrizhoffer, we are informed, that the medical, and otherwise useful, plants of this country exceed 4000.

The part which relates to quadrupeds, is much more extensive, but, in this also, we shall select only a few of the more important observations. Cats, swine, dogs, rats, and mice are certainly indigenous animals, as they have names in the language of the country. The dogs are wild and extraordinarily fierce. Of the mice, the larger species inhabits the trunks of old trees; the smaller are variegated in their colour, with short tails, and esteemed a delicious dainty. Horses have not degenerated; and, like the asses and mules, are fleetier than those of Spain, from whom they are derived. The flocks are numerous and flourishing; but the natives will not eat their mutton, lest their children should be born covered with wool. The horns of the oxen are so large, that the natives carry water in them, to supply the wants of a long journey. The lions, that is the *pumæ* of the Peruvians, the American lions (*J. Onca Linnæi*) except in the hotter provinces, are less than the African, more apprehensive, more crafty, and less fierce. They are also less generous, and kill whole flocks, merely from the malicious cruelty of the cat-race. The want of a mane, the smaller tail, and the darker colour of the skin, seem, in the abbé's opinion, to justify the opinion of Pliny, that this is a mongrel race from the leopard and lioness. This opinion is however without foundation, and Buffon has fully shown, that it is an animal very different from the lion. The American tyger, in the language of the country, Jaqua or Yaguareté, the true tyger, is described at length. In ferocity and magnitude, it exceeds the eastern tyger; and the other species are also added. Bears are uncommon, except on the western mountains, and the skin of the black bear has a finer fur than those of Russia. Wolves, foxes, moles, rabbits, and hares, are common. The smaller rabbit is peculiar to this country: it is of the size of a mouse; its colour a greyish brown, sometimes white, with black spots; and its flesh of a delicious flavour. If the *viverra putatorius* is found sleeping, he is caught by the tail, and raised up, to prevent his evacuating the foetid fluid, which forms its chief defence. Its flesh is then found to be excellent, and its liver is used by the natives as an efficacious remedy in pleurisy.

The flesh of the opossum is so foetid, that it cannot be eaten,  
except



except in the utmost necessity ; yet it is said this is corrected, among some American nations, by burning off the hair, before the animal is opened. To correct the foetor of some of these animals, the Americans employ the excrements of a wild cat, that inhabits the more mountainous districts, resembling, in odor, musk. They throw this substance on the coals, when a person has the small pox, or an epidemic fever, and when any one dies : this may be either a superstitious practice, or more probably designed to purify the air. The myrmecophaga is very fond of honey, milk, and mead, in its wild state, but loses the inclination for these substances, when fat and tame : one of the species, the *M. tetradactyla*, can fix itself to a tree so strongly, that three men, though they have secured him with a rope, cannot pull him away. There are seven species of the *Dasytus*, the Armadillo, which are described particularly. These animals do not confirm the opinion of Buffon, that, when they have not a coat of mail, they are covered with scales ; nor is it true, that they sleep in the daytime, except it be one species. We add from Dobrizhoffer, that the Abissones, from the tails of these animals, make greaves for the legs, instead of boots. He observes too, that they have an articulation in their armour, on each side of the neck ; that the coat of mail is conspicuous even in the young, previous to the birth ; that the larger kinds live on the flesh of horses and of mules, which the lesser abstain from. Their flesh is said to excel that of a chicken, and their fat to be useful for medical purposes.

There are four species of swine, of which one has, on its back, a cyst, containing an excrementitious fluid so foetid, as to be smelt at the distance of an Italian mile, which must be taken away as soon as the animal is killed, if it be designed for food. The stags are larger than the European stags ; the goats not very different. The camel is a very different species from the Llama, as is the kengna from the alpaca, in its habitation, covering, manners, and voice. The other quadrupeds deserve no particular notice.

The account of the birds is also extensive. The abbé first notices those, whose song and plumage are pleasing and beautiful : afterwards he examines them in their order. The meleagris, our author does not consider as a native, on account of his wanting a name in the language of the country, which the fowls possess : yet he remarks, that these are generally procured from a distance. The *struthio rhea* is adduced to weaken the assertion of Buffon, that all the American birds roost in high places. On the same authority, it is true that the male covers the eggs, and drives away the female ; but why he breaks some of the eggs with his bill, is not known.

There

There are two species of eagle, and four of vultures: the difference between the eagle and vulture is supposed, by our author, to consist in habit, flight, and food. The flesh of the fourth species of vulture, the condor, is hard, black, and of a disagreeable taste; but it forms the food of the inhabitants. The Spaniards use its heart as a remedy against the disease, which they call the disease of the heart, probably fainting. But neither the condor nor the eagles eat exclusively their own prey, so that Buffon's characteristic mark taken from this circumstance fails. The owls, the falcons, the partridges, and the peacocks, do not greatly differ from the European birds of the same kind. The latter roost in trees, are roused by torches of guaiacum wood and taken: their flesh is said to be tender, spicy, tasty, and fat. The pheasants are kept tame in the house to eat up the ants, but, in the milder seasons, they go away, nor are they ever afterwards to be tamed. Of the lesser birds we find nothing to notice particularly. A small bird of the passerine tribe is generally found alone in the most craggy mountains, and, on that account, called Guacho, the orphan: it is principally sought for on account of its excrements, which, diluted in water, form an useful application in contusions. This seems to be nothing very peculiar: the excrements of pigeons and many other birds are alkalescent, and form a moderately stimulant and resolvent application. The distinction of the jays is not easy, because the natives have the art of changing the colour of the feathers: they instruct them also in the notes of other birds, and employ them as decoys. The account of the web-footed birds is short and superficial.

The sixth book contains the reptiles. The crocodile (alligator) is said to equal, in size and ferocity, the African crocodile; yet we recollect, that Dobrizhoffer remarks he never heard, during a residence of twenty-two years, of any one bitten or injured by this animal; and this led us to distrust a little the warm colouring of Mr. Bartram. Numerous tribes feed on the alligator, yet for this purpose, some glands, situated under the jaws, and the genitals of the male, must be cut out, as soon as the animal is dead, on account of the strong odour of musk. It seems not to be true, that the Iguana is injurious to the venereal passion: the little stones in its head, as well as in the head of the alligator, are used as lithontriptics and diuretics. The skin is employed in mechanical purposes. The salamander, when irritated, becomes of a very bright yellow, so that the black spots disappear. A viscid bluish fluid runs from the mouth, which is highly septic, and immediately kills cats and dogs: the water salamander is more innocent than the terrestrial animal. The frogs are numerous; their note



the same as the European, and they are used both as food and medicine. One species of a leaden colour, with black spots, is so poisonous, as to be soon mortal, unless warm sudorifics are taken, *and a frog of the same species bruised and laid on the navel.* Toads are also numerous: one species, called by the Spaniards, Esquerzo, has teeth, sharp and serrated: unlike other toads, it bites violently, and its froth, if it touches the body, is equally mortal with its bite, *unless the animal is killed and laid on the wound.* Some tribes use this animal in powder, as a poison, and it is given in the drink of the destined victim. Our author describes the boa constrictor and its chace. These animals, he tells us, put their mouths against the openings of the dens of wild beasts, and draw them out, and attract sheep, by the same means, suspending themselves from the tops of trees—But enough of these idle fancies.

The number of venomous serpents, he observes, is considerable; and they are in general distinguished by rattles in their tails; a silvery hue, resplendent through the grass and thick woods, or a fiery red colour, like coals burning in the dark. The abbé seems also to support the equivocal generation of serpents, but he adduces no argument of greater importance, than the *tænia cerebialis*, worms in the abdomen of a species of locust, perhaps the *filaria grylli*, which, on that account, the inhabitants are afraid of, and abstain from. These facts have however been often noticed, and satisfactorily explained. We omit some idle tales of the rattle-snake, and the means of curing its bite; but may mention from Dobrizhoffer, that a root, in every respect but in size resembling that of the white lily, called by the Spaniards *nardus*, cut in slices, macerated in spirit of wine, and applied to the wound, while at the same time some of the spirit is taken inwardly, is an infallible cure for the bite of every serpent, except the rattle-snake. The manner in which this receipt is given seems to support its utility; and we would suggest, for many different reasons, a trial of the white lily root.

Insects, it must be supposed, are very numerous. Bees, flies, beetles, &c. are found here. Locusts are less than in the old world, and considered as a dainty by the inhabitants. Their return is therefore sought for; they are hunted with ardor, and carefully preserved with pepper. The lepidoptera are very numerous, of a size and colour which claim attention and admiration. Ants are frequent, and their habitations are large and pyramidal; in this description, we seem to recognize the termites of Africa. At the extremity of the abdomen, the largest kinds have a cyst full of a white or yellow matter, resembling batter, much in request among the natives, and Europeans. The latter employ the pyramidal nests for  
bakers'

bakers' ovens; and, when reduced to powder, the materials form a very durable cement. The aranea avicularia spins a very firm thread, highly useful. Other insects, and the superstitious fancies related of them, are too inconsiderable to detain us.

Of the fish, he says nothing very interesting. The eels are numerous, and much larger than our own. The inhabitants, however, refrain from eating them, as they suspect that they are connected with serpents.

The manners and the customs of this race, we have given some account of in our description of the productions of their country. The small-pox and the plague make frequent devastations. One singular disorder we shall mention. The colony, or the city of St. Philip, built in a moist situation, in the neighbourhood of Chaco, has been afflicted, ever since the year 1730, with a singular disease, denominated from St. Lazarus. In some part of the body, a small spot sometimes breaks out, which increases slowly for many years; some livid maculae generally surround it, and, together, they spread over the whole body. The limbs then fail, and the patient dies dropical. The disorder is not contagious; but it extends farther every year. In this account, we recognize the pian of Amboyna, a species of elephantiasis.

On the whole, this is an interesting volume, and we could wish that some judicious natural historian, would combine our author's account with that of Dobrizhoffer. This we have, in some measure, done; but, if the whole of each was given in a connected form, it would, we think, be very interesting to the English reader.

*Memoires, ou Essai, sur la Musique. Par M. Gretry. 8vo. Paris. 1793.*

*Essay on Music, by M. Gretry.*

THE author of this entertaining work has acquired so great celebrity in the musical line, that his observations deserve great attention, as uniting practical skill with theoretical knowledge. When the French were accustomed to hear nothing at plays, or concerts, but a lamentable psalmody, which was called music, there was reason for the laughter of other European nations; and the satire of the author of the *Devin du Village* was received with malicious satisfaction. His well known definition of 'Genius,' in the *Dictionnaire de la Musique*, thus concludes, 'Vulgar man, do not profane that sublime name. To what purpose would thou know it? Thou canst not feel it. Compose French music.'

Yet



Yet how many musicians still compose in that drawling style, in France, and even in Italy, after a conviction that imitative music is the only kind proper for the theatre, because it expresses all the passions, and represents all objects, and, of course, has no other bounds than those of nature. How much has the face of music changed in France and Italy within these twenty years! In the latter country, says a French critic, the composers offer nothing but combinations of melodious sounds; in the former they endeavour to apply harmony and melody to dramatic poems, as the painter applies the colours to a previous design: in Italy the passions are sung; and in France they are expressed.

To unveil this great truth, is to inspire the artist with a desire of knowing how this indispensable expression of the theatre may be acquired. M. Gretry is about to unfold it to us; and his observations and experience may be trusted, for he is one of those who first felt its necessity, and who have enforced a happy theory by a yet more happy practice.

At the theatre, says this celebrated man, the expression of the music must exactly correspond with the situation and words; because they have a determined sense, and the truth of the expression of the music strengthens the situation, and gives full intelligence to the words, amid the accompaniments. This rule I observe as much as possible in my theatrical compositions. I begin almost every piece by a declaimed chant, that having a more intimate connection with the drama, the commencement may be impressed on the attention of the audience. I, in like manner, declaim all that constitutes the characters of the persons; I abandon to air all that is only ornament, or poetical phraseology: melody would injure *technical* words; it embellishes all the rest. If there be occasion that a word be well understood, that the phrase may be clear, let it be supported by a clear note. If you establish a *forte* of one or two measures in your orchestra, let it be upon words already understood; for a necessary word, lost in the orchestra, may entirely destroy the sense of a passage. If the author of the drama, misled by the necessity of a rhyme, has given you some useless verses, or such as hurt the expression; if you suspect a verse of bad taste may disgust the pit; serve the poet, in covering the words with a *forte*. It is difficult, I confess, to apply these precepts by reflection alone; nature must teach us simplicity, richness, and truth, in the practice. But if, after reading an art of poetry, any one might commence poet, who would not be a Boileau? It is not sufficient for the theatre to make music *for* words; the music must incorporate with the words.

I often heard discourses on music; and as most commonly  
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I was singular in my opinion, I resolved to be silent. Meantime while I asked myself, if there was not a method of pleasing all? It is requisite, said I, that there be truth in the declamation, to which the French are very sensible. I had remarked that a dreadful loudness of tone did not affect the pleasure of the audience, while the least false inflection occasioned a general rumour. I sought therefore for truth in the declamation; after which I believed that the musician, who knew the best how to change it into air, would be the most skilful. Yes, it is not at the French theatre; it is in the mouth of great actors, that declamation, attended with theatrical illusions, causes in us ineffaceable impressions; which can never be supplied by the best written precepts, or the most complete analysis.

‘It is there that the musician learns to interrogate the passions, to scrutinize the human heart, to account to himself for all the emotions of the soul. It is in that school that he learns to know, and to express, all their shades and limits. It is useless then, I must repeat it, to describe here the feelings with which the action has struck us; if sensibility do not preserve them in the bottom of our souls, if it do not there excite its storms, or produce its calm, all description is vain. The cold composer, and the man without passions, will ever be a servile echo, which only repeats sounds; and real sensibility will never be affected by them.

‘Persuaded that each interlocutor has his force, his manner, I studied to preserve the character of each. Soon I perceived that music has resources, which declamation alone has not. A girl, for example, assures her mother that she is a stranger to love; but while she affects indifference by a simple and monotonous chant, the orchestra expresses the torment of her amorous heart. Does a fool wish to express his love, or his courage? If he be truly animated, he ought to have the accents of his passion; but the orchestra by its monotony will whisper the truth. In general, the sentiment ought to be in the air: the wit, the sense, the gestures, the behaviour, ought to be in the accompaniments.’

M. Gretry makes the application of these valuable remarks to his own works: of each of which he gives us the history: and he extends his love of the art he professes, and of sincerity, so far as carefully to point out the faults which he ought to have avoided: and, what is still more, he tells us the causes of their being committed. But, besides this advantage, the memoirs of this author possess also that of offering on the musical drama observations no where else to be found; so that this original and interesting work becomes peculiarly valuable to authors as well as to composers.

We shall terminate this extract (for any defect in rendering



ing the French musical terms of which, we must apologize, as being not completely in our province) with an anecdote, which shews how much the success of a piece depends on the representation. 'The drama called Sylvain had much success; the catastrophe produced a strong effect; and an accident which happened to Cailleau, the actor, contributed to that effect. In throwing himself at the knees of his father, he wished to embrace them; but the father awkwardly drew back, and caused Cailleau to lose his equilibrium, who, feeling himself falling, drew advantage from the incident, by throwing himself with his face on the ground. The attitude appeared natural, and the situation deeply affecting. The effect was complete: but it would not have been felt, and, perhaps, laughter would have been substituted for applause, had it not been for the actor's presence of mind.

'The same actor, who played the father of Sylvain at Paris, afterwards in the country represented Sylvain himself: to imitate Cailleau, he threw himself on the ground; but so awkwardly that he overturned his father, who drew Basil along with him in his fall. They nevertheless made a shift to get up; and the father of Sylvain, continuing his part, said,

'De quinze ans de chagrin voilà donc la vengeance!'

*Recherches sur les Costumes, & sur les Théâtres de toutes les Nations, tant anciennes que modernes: Ouvrage utile aux Peintres, Statuaires, Architectes, Decorateurs, Comédiens, Costumiers, en un Mot aux Artistes de tous les Genres. 2 Vols. 4to. Paris.*

*Inquiry concerning the Costume, and the Theatres of all Nations, ancient and modern; a useful Work for Painters, Stationaries, &c.*

THIS singular and splendid work merits considerable attention, not only from those connected with the theatre, but those who study the customs and the dress of other ages. The dress is, in some degree also, connected with the manners, occasionally with the laws, and almost always with the customs: so that the study is not only useful to the manager of the theatre, but it is a minuter, and almost a supplementary part of history. If the theatre can ever be the school of morality, through the medium of amusement, the mind must not be disgusted with absurdities of appearance, inconsistent with the period of the drama, as on our own theatre, where the dress of the persons, at the same time present on the stage,

stage, is of different æras. In Shakspeare's tragedies, the dress of the king, the general, or the hero, is generally antique, sometimes characteristic, while the subordinate actors strut in a modern uniform. We have seen Macbeth and Banquo in their tartans, while the good king Duncan 'bears his faculties so meekly,' as to be contented with an old English dress. The mad knight Falstaff keeps always his characteristic habiliments, while the prince of Wales, Poins, and Gadshill, are usually beings of as many different ages. But we need not multiply instances to render the present work of importance: we only meant to show, while our author's instances are confined to his own national theatre, that our stage can furnish improprieties still more glaring. The ornaments of these volumes consist in the printing and plates: they are both superb. The plates are washed etchings, fifty-five in number, of which forty-four are coloured.

'If,' says our author, an attention to proper dresses is indispensable to a painter of history, it is no less so to the tragic author. To represent the heroes of antiquity with propriety, the dramatic poet must enter into their genius and character, and cloath them in dresses either civil or military, suitable to their situation, their country, or their particular fancies, if any such are recorded. The theatre is a picture, which can only deceive by the happy agreement of all its parts. Can the deception then exist, if, conveyed to Corinth or Rome, we see the Greeks and Romans dressed in robes of brocade, with a laced turban, or decorated with all the effeminacies of the drawing room? What, therefore, ought to have been a spectacle for a scholar, becomes only the pastime of the idle, or a magic lanthorn for 'children of a larger size.'

Such, however, has been the French stage, and such our own.—Cato's flowing wig, gilt robe, and lacquered chair, is handed down to posterity, inshrined in the language of Pope; and, at this moment, we look at the royal Dane, and young Hamlet, in English dresses, and sometimes in the order of the garter. After having established his principles, and shown the necessity of attending to the proper ornaments, our author points out the dresses which ought to be allotted to the characters of the five tragedies of Racine, viz. Andromache, Esther, Britannicus, Berenice, and Iphigenia in Aulis; and, in this discussion, he finds means to explain all the necessary parts of the theatrical dress, as well as enables us to combine those, of which we have no idea from historical monuments. He informs us that Pyrrhus, and many other heroes of Greece, whom we have generally seen in helmets, coats of mail, in all the 'pomp, pride, and circumstance of glorious war,' ought, unless described as in the field, to be dressed in the civil mode;

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for, in times of peace, defensive armour was never worn in Greece, in public places, nor in the private apartments of the house or palace.

He observes too, that Orestes, even in the most regular theatres, is dressed improperly in the military habit; for he is represented as an ambassador, at this time; in history and even in the play. It would not, however, be easy, adds the author, to reconcile this dress with what Orestes says and does in the course of the drama. The dress of ambassadors was long and cumbrous: it was very unsuitable to his design of carrying off Hermione, or to what passes in the temple, when Pyrrhus is assassinated; yet Orestes must have worn his civil habit, for in the third scene of the fifth act, when telling Hermione what had passed previous to the death of the king of Epirus, he says—'The sight of me seemed to increase his audacity, as if insulting the Greeks in the person of their ambassador, would have added splendour to his nuptials.' If then he had changed his dress, and put on the military habit, Pyrrhus would not have seen, in him, the ambassador: on the contrary, he might have suspected the design, and the project would have been abortive.

If our limits were not too confined, we might add some similar observations. When the author can find no authentic standard of dress, as for instance in that of Esther, he steers his course with caution, and, resting on invariable principles, his decisions are at least probable, if not true.

In the tragedy of Britannicus, our author digresses to the oriental dress, from considering that which is suitable to Antiochus. But the greatest erudition is displayed in the remarks on Iphigenia; and, if he can establish with so much probability, the proper ornaments in the heroic ages, we may more securely trust him at a later period.

A very important part of this work is what relates to the proper form of the pallium and the chlamys, and many other ancient dresses, which the author has represented in the plates, in their proper forms and folds. He even points out the manner of arranging the garments on the body, and, to show that his ideas are not arbitrary, he has engraved numerous figures from ancient monuments. His figures also are accompanied with the buildings, or the furniture which ought to surround the stage. In this he has rendered the greatest service to the art, for the buildings around are usually imaginary ones, and the apartments are always empty. If a chair or a table is brought in, it is decidedly modern, and not always in the best state.

There are numerous digressions, some of which are useful only to the actor, as pointing out the proper look and deport-

ment, or explaining the designs of the different personages. Some other dissertations are less apposite, particularly that on the ancient papyrus, and the critical examination of the Book of Esther. Voltaire displayed his wit on that subject, and, perhaps, our author, following the delirium of the moment, might have thought to secure a good reception, by the help of the seasoning of infidelity. We shall not, however, dispute on religion or politics with a Frenchman, but turn to the work, once more to collect two or three anecdotes.

A young actress of the French theatre, whose talents were moderate, and figure disagreeable, played Andromache. She played very ill, and her form did not apologise for her other faults. One of the spectators, passionately fond of Racine, was highly disgusted at hearing his lines so cruelly mangled, and sought for some method to express his disapprobation. When she came to the following line, (we must preserve the French)

Seigneur ! que faites vous ? & que dira la Grèce ?

he could contain no longer, but immediately added, in the same dull tone,

Que vous etes, madame, une laide—

We have some similar anecdotes of our own stage. Thomson's Sophonisba, it is well known, had nearly failed from a wag echoing—

Oh ! Jemmy Thomson ! Jemmy Thomson, oh !

Near the end of some play, is the following line :

To you, my sons, I here bequeath my crown.

to which was immediately replied :

Why then, ye gods ! there's half a crown apiece.

In the repetitions of Racine's Andromache, the author gave frequent advice to the actors—' But, as for you, said he, to the celebrated Baron, who played the part of Pyrrhus, I have nothing to say : your heart and your judgment will inform you better than I can.'—Baron, in Pyrrhus, excelled his usual acting. He varied his action and his expression, every time of representing. One day, in the scene, where Pyrrhus says to Andromache—' Go see your son,' and concludes with the following line :

Madame, en l'embrassant, songez à le sauver.

instead of a threatening tone, he assumed the most pathetic expression of interest and affection. He even seemed, by the affect-



affecting manner with which he spoke these words, 'while you embrace him,' to hold Astyanax in his arms, and present him to his mother. The person, who has preserved this anecdote, remarks that the spectators burst into tears, and that they were disgusted, for a time, with Andromache, for her refusal of Pyrrhus.

We shall add another anecdote, though not a singular one, of a different cast. 'A grave magistrate, who had never been at a play, was induced to go, by an assurance that he would be highly pleased with the Andromache of Racine. He was very attentive to the play, which concluded with the farce of the "Lawyers."—On his return, he met Racine, and said with a great deal of simplicity, "I am much pleased, sir, with your Andromache: it is a very entertaining play; but I am astonished at its ending so happily. I had, at first, some inclination to cry; but I could not contain myself at the scene of the little dogs, and I laughed in spite of myself."

We have brought forward this volume, not only for its own merit, but to bring it to the notice of the English managers. As we have now one of the first theatres in the world for dramatic representations; it would be a subject of regret, if the illusion of the scene was defective, from a want of due inquiry and reflection.

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*Reponse du Comte de Lally Tolendal, à M. L'abbé D——, Grand Vicaire, auteur de l'écrit intitulé: Lettre à M. le Comte De Lally: par un officier François. 8vo. 1794.*

*The Reply of the Count Lally Tolendal to the Abbé D——, Grand Vicar, and Author of a Publication, entitled, A Letter to the Count de Lally, by a French Officer, &c.*

IT is no small aggravation of the misfortunes of the French emigrants, that, in addition to the proscriptions which their country has pronounced upon them, they experience from one another mutual contempt, hatred, and distrust, according to the subdivisions of party, and the different æras of their exile. As the labourers, who had worked but one hour in the vineyard, received an equal recompense with those who had borne the burden and heat of the day; so, in the eyes of the true aristocrates, those who, in the earliest dawn of the revolution, have in any manner or degree co-operated with the friends of liberty, are held guilty of all the violences which accompanied the later periods of the democratic administrations.

Mr. Tolendal, in this small pamphlet, endeavours to exculpate himself from the charge of having deserted the cause of the king, brought against him by Mr.—le grand vicaire, his

antagonist. He professes himself a firm friend to monarchy, to nobility, to an establishment with full toleration, and to two houses of parliament. He assimilates his cause to his adversary's, by reminding him, that the same party by which *he* had lost a brother, had likewise set a price upon his own head; and he concludes with saying, 'May the day be hastened, in which we shall at length find the necessity of uniting, and not of opposing one another, in the name of Louis the XVIth; the day when the testament of Louis, that gospel of clemency and peace, of justice, and of liberty, written entire upon a sacred orisflamme, shall be a rallying point for good Frenchmen of all ranks, and good men of every party.'

The pamphlet is written, as a gentleman and a man of letters may be expected to write, but is too personal to interest the public.

*Rapport sur les Cercles de Reflexion, & à deux Lunettes, de M. Borda : par Jean Perny.*

*Memoir on the Circles of Reflexion, &c.*

WE have selected the present Memoir, from the Journal de Lycée, the only one, which our limits can admit in the present number. The importance of the instrument, the precision of its results, both in astronomical and geographical inquiries, and the facility with which it is employed, render its invention an epoch in astronomical history. Mayer first suggested the hint, which Mr. Borda improved and carried into practice. We must trace, however, the advantages of the circles from their source.

Astronomy furnishes many methods of ascertaining the longitude, that is the difference of time between the place of the observer, and that from which he came. The means of ascertaining this difference, is by eclipses of the sun, moon, the satellites of Jupiter, and the occultation of stars by the moon. Eclipses of the sun are preferable, on account of the distinct termination of the moon's disc. These methods succeed on shore; but at sea, the motion of the ship prevents an accurate examination; and the sea chairs of Mr. Irwin, and M. Fyot, have not answered the public expectation. The distance of the moon, from a given fixed star, in successive evenings, with the assistance of a well regulated watch, will give the difference of meridians; and we now consequently find, in the ephemerides of different nations, the distance of the moon from the principal stars, calculated for places of known longitude, at any given time. The height of the moon, and its distance



distance from the stars, have been consequently the methods preferred. Pingrè, in his voyage to India, used the former ; but the calculation is long and tedious : the second requires, at present, little more than a quarter of an hour, even in an unexperienced hand. The marine instruments are catoptric ones ; and, in M. de la Lande's History of Navigation, which we have mentioned in the present Number, the twentieth chapter is destined to the description of those hitherto employed.

Suppose a circle, to which a moveable ruler is adapted, fixed to the center, and equal to the diameter of the circle. On this is placed a telescope, and, at the extremity of the ruler, opposite the telescope, is placed a mirror, one half of which is coated, the other not ; so that, looking at a star through this telescope, it is seen through the part of the mirror not coated.

Suppose another ruler, equal to the radius of the circle, attached also to the center, and moving on it, carrying another mirror placed in the center, on which the other star is seen, whose distance you want to determine, from that seen through the telescope. In using it, the ruler, which has the second mirror, is placed at O : the other ruler is directed to the star on the right, till the image of the other star, at the left, is reflected on the mirror of the ruler that carries the telescope, and coincides, in the telescope, with the image of the star seen directly. The ruler of the telescope is then fixed, and the circle is turned on its plane, till the telescope is directed to the star on the left : the ruler, which is at O, is next moved to the right, till the two images are in contact : the arc described will consequently be double the angle of the distance of the two stars. This is nearly the description and use of the circle of reflection of M. Borda ; and, by repeating the operation from the last point, where the ruler is, the angle may be quadrupled, sextupled, &c. and any error, in the graduation of the instrument, of course avoided. This cannot be done by the octants and sextants, so that the whole circle is much more advantageous ; nor is it necessary, as in these last instruments, to verify the parallelism of the mirrors, when the operation is repeated. Mayer, we have said, first suggested the idea ; but the plan was only completed in 1775, and first published in 1787.

M. Borda has rendered his instrument equally useful on land, and to determine the principal elements of astronomy, as the obliquity of the ecliptic ; the height of the sun, from which that of the equator is known ; the declination of the principal stars ; the particular motions observed in some of these ; the differences of reflection, &c.

The structure of the second instrument is very simple. It is a circle of six radii: one of the sides of the limb, called the upper, is divided; the other not: on the upper divided limb, a telescope, with a vernier, slides; and, at each extremity of the telescope, is a microscope to read off the divisions. On the lower limb, another telescope slides, and the whole instrument is so constructed, as to be placed, at will, in an horizontal, oblique, or vertical position.

Suppose two points in the horizon, and we want to know the angle they form. We place the instrument horizontally, fixing the telescope of the divided limb at 0: we then move the circle, so that the object, at the right, shall be in the telescope: the circle is fixed, and the telescope of the undivided limb directed to the left object. The circle is next rendered moveable, and the operation reversed, directing the telescope of the undivided limb to the right. The angle on the limb will be double the angle of the object; and the same advantages, in repeating the operation, will be found as in the circles of reflection. In the French operations, relative to the respective situations of Greenwich and Paris, this instrument appeared very correct: the greatest error, in the sum of the three angles of each triangle, not exceeding 1". 9.

To determine the height of the sun or stars by this instrument, they put a spirit level on the undivided limb, and place the circle vertically: the observations are consequently made with the telescope of the divided limb. It may also be employed to verify the division of quadrants, by comparing the observations with each instrument.

*Nouveau Siècle de Louis XIV. ou Poësies—Anecdotes du Regne & de la Cour de ce Prince, avec des Notes Historiques &c. des Eclaircissemens. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris.*

*A New Age of Louis XIV. or Poetry, Anecdotes, &c. of the Court during that Reign; with historical Notes and Illustrations, &c.*

**N**OTHING new must be expected in this collection. It is a compilation of all the memoirs, all the writings, and even all the fugitive pamphlets of the period. Nor must the reader look for the spirit and dignity, which the historic muse imparts to the events she transmits to posterity. Sometimes a fatal defeat, or a distressing catastrophe, if it supplies an epigrammatic point, becomes the subject of a song, and enlivens a satire or a ballad. The most celebrated generals do not escape the poignant remark, which raises a laugh at their expence. The weakest commanders, those whose only merit it has been



to have fixed the choice of a titled mistress; the most insignificant ministers; all the weak agents; the ambitious, who, from an eager desire to rule, precipitate every thing to ruin, do not excite indignation, but ridicule. They do not seem to merit reproof: it is enough to treat them with ironical sneers. In a word, when we hear these songsters string their couplets on national misfortunes, we are tempted to repeat a French *bon-mot*—‘It is impossible to lose a kingdom with more gaiety.’

We mean not to say, that this collection is only a trifling miscellany of ballads and jests. Some memorable circumstances, some interesting scenes, prosperity which flatters self-love, and misfortunes to excite despair, also occur. Such is the singular complexion of this prince’s reign, a prince who has exhausted the quiver of the satirist, and the praises of the wildest panegyrist. We see always round his couch a woman and a priest, each a foreigner, who govern in his name. Their despotism was insupportable: the noblemen resisted, the parliament published *arrêts*, the Parisians, commanded by another priest, barricaded the streets. Twice a reward was published for the minister’s head: twice he yielded to the storm, and retired from public view. He still, in effect, governed and returned triumphant; every party was at his feet; the parliament forgot its *arrêts*; and the princes, kept in prison by this stranger, forgot the insults, and married the nieces of their jailor. At length he died: a song followed, and every poet cast his arrow at the carcass. He left, however, 200 millions, equal to 500 at this period, the fruits of his rapine.

The lawyers, the ennobled rich men, gave Louis, Louvois for a minister: another party offered another, in the person of Colbert, who sullied his ministry by the inveteracy he entertained against Fouquet, and the shameful violence with which he pursued his ruin. Louvois reanimated in his master’s breast the fatal passion for conquests. A less calm look, and an absent manner in the king, was the signal of war. The commencement was successful, and the desire of glory succeeded his principal passion, or rather united with his chief wish, that of being feared. Louvois only wanted to be thought necessary; to make Louis think, that he owed the conquests to his minister’s talents; and thus sacrificed the treasures of the state, and a million of Frenchmen, to his love of power, and to the insatiable demands of ambition.—It is a dreadful picture! and a current, like this, should have been checked; but the building should have been repaired, not razed to the foundation. Honour, humanity, sound policy, and religion, should have presided over the reform.

Colbert took another road, which, from the account before us, seems not less fatal, notwithstanding the assertions of his

panegyrists. By animating arts and manufactures, by fostering taste, and expanding ideas of elegance and design, he inspired Louis with a fondness for pleasure and magnificence, particularly buildings. He buried 300 millions in the palace of Versailles; numerous lives were sacrificed in hollowing the canal, which was designed to carry the whole river Eure to ornament its environs. It was forbidden to speak of the diseases and death resulting from the exhalations: 'It is of little importance, says the minister, whether they die in moving the earth against an enemy's fortress, or in the plains of Beauce: it is still in the service of their king.' The labours were abandoned for the war of 1688, and have not been again undertaken: the remains only continue, the proofs of this excess of folly and inhumanity.

The death of these two ministers was the bounds of their master's prosperity. Satiety followed enjoyment, but his heart, though no longer eager, was not empty. A female devotee reigned in it, and gave it a new direction. Pleasure was attended by reformation: love assumed a serious, circum-spect air; opinions were no longer free; and punishment was the argument, which was to prevail on the whole nation, to be of the opinion of their king.

Five hundred thousand people, escaping from the sword of persecution, carried arts, industry, and riches, to foreign countries. An unsuccessful war followed; the frontiers were no longer in a state of defence; Louis was scarcely secure at Versailles, while a destructive famine desolated the provinces, and death left him only one single twig, too weak to support the hope of posterity. A little change of fortune made his last moments more fortunate; but he died, detested by his subjects, whom he left overwhelmed with the weight of taxes, and plunged in the most profound misery. The body of a king, praised with so much eagerness during his life, scarcely escaped insult: such should be the lot of kings who live only for themselves!

This is nearly the outline of a history, given in a manner so abrupt and desultory, collected from songs, epigrams, and satires. Some of these we might select; but to an English reader, much of their spirit, their ease, would be lost, even if they were acquainted with the French language; to enjoy them, they should have French feelings and French minds. One or two anecdotes may be more acceptable.

Colbert, we have said, was one of the greatest enemies of Fouquet. Seguier was scarcely less so. The chancellor Seguier, the president of the commission, treated him with considerable harshness: the other ministers were scarcely more favourable. Some one, in the presence of marshal Turenne, blamed the



the violence of Colbert, and the moderation which Tellier affected. 'In truth, replied the marshal, I believe Colbert has the greatest wish that he should be hanged, and Tellier is most apprehensive that he will escape.'

When Achille de Harlai was first president, a certain marchioness, who had an important trial, suspected the president to be prejudiced against her, and always called him the old monkey.—She gained her cause, and went to thank the president, who had heard of the appellation. 'You owe me no thanks,' says Harlai. 'It is natural that the old monkeys should love the young ones.'—When the lawyers came to ask his protection—'My protection,' says he, 'the rogues shall not have, and the honest men will not want it.'

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*Lettres Américaines, dans lesquelles on examine l'Origine, l'Etat civil, politique, militaire, et religieux, les Arts, l'Industrie, les Sciences, les Mœurs, les Usages des anciens Habitants de l'Amérique, la grande Epoque de la Nature, l'Ancienne Communication des deux Hémisphères, et la dernière Revolution qui a fait disparoitre l'Atlantis : pour servir d'une continuation aux Memoires de D. Ulloa, par M. le Comte J. R. Carli.*

*American Letters, in which is examined the Origin, the civil, political, military, and religious State, the Arts, the Industry, the Sciences, Manners and Usages of the ancient Inhabitants of America, the great Epoch of Nature, the ancient Communication of the two Hemispheres, and the last Revolution which has occasioned the Atlantis to disappear : intended to serve as a Continuation to the Memoirs of D. Ulloa, by M. le Comte J. R. Carli.*

THESE letters, the author of which, already known by many esteemed works, is one of the most learned men of modern Italy, have two principal objects; the first to resolve the historical and physical problem of the origin of the Americans, a long time agitated amongst the literati of Europe; the second, to prove against M. Paw, that the great states of America were arrived, at the time of the conquest, at a very high degree of civilisation, and that there is no appearance in them of that state of degradation and natural inferiority, which he attempts to shew.

The author appears to have very happily fulfilled these two objects, the importance of which demands, that we should enter into some details.

It is necessary to set out with some essential and established facts, which the author establishes as the basis of his system.

First,

First, there exists a marked resemblance between the civil and religious customs of the Peruvians, and the Chinese: between the Mexicans and the Egyptians, there is also an analogy of language, not less striking. Secondly, it is quite impossible that those people should have communicated one with another, to traverse the extent of the sea, which separated them for so many ages previous to the epoch of the discovery of the new world; the ancient navigation, which was never far from the coasts, was too imperfect before the invention of the compass, and necessarily too timid and too feeble to traverse the ocean.

Thirdly, the testimony of all antiquity is unanimous upon the existence of an ancient land, called the Island of Atlantis, situated in the middle of the Atlantic ocean, which was greater than all Asia, and Lybia, and which had disappeared at a very remote period.

This tradition, universally received in the ancient world, certainly cannot be revoked: many authors have spoken of it in the most positive manner; amongst others Plato, and Ammianus Marcellinus. The following is a passage from Plato. 'The island was opposite the entrance, which was then distinguished by the name of the Columns of Hercules, [the Straits of Gibraltar]: this island was greater than Lybia and Asia altogether; one passed from this island to others, and from those to the continent: the power of the kings, who reigned over this island Atlantis, was very great, which extended also upon many little contiguous islands, and over a great part of the continent; these people having made an irruption in our country, conquering Lybia, and Europe, even to the Mediterranean.' If Plato (says the author of the letters) had had under his eyes a map, which represented the ocean with the two actual continents, would he have designed the Atlantic better?

'It is sufficient to look at a chart, and to have some knowledge of geography, to feel how complete this conclusion of the author is.

'Still more it is obviously to this tradition, so generally agreed upon, concerning the existence, and disappearance of the Atlantic island, that we must ascribe the idea, clearly announced in many authors, both ancient and modern, of another continent, of a western world opposite to ours, and separated from us by the ocean.

'In fact, well informed people know well, that the glory of Columbus is not in having first had this idea before him, but in having borrowed this lost idea, submitted to a calculation as just, as it is bold; in having affirmed, that this would be found in sailing constantly to the west; and in having dared to seek and traverse an immense and unknown sea.'

Now



Now what conclusions are made by the author from all these acknowledgments which we cannot contradict? That this Atlantic island was formerly the point of communication between the two worlds, as it reached on one side to Asia and Europe, and on the other to the Antilles, the first land that we discern in sailing upon the Atlantic ocean from east to west: that this Atlantic was ingulphed in the waves by one of those great revolutions, of which it is demonstrated, that this globe has been and may still be the theatre. We may perhaps infer, that these successive revolutions, which have, after long intervals, overturned and renewed the globe, are the probable cause of the bounded progress which the human race has made in every species of science and knowledge, which ought to be much greater, considering the antiquity of the globe attested from our days by discoveries, and the conclusions of philosophy.

These vast inundations which have changed the face of it, and convert by turns a sea into a continent, and a continent into a sea, are no longer an hypothesis, but facts physically demonstrated by a number of united observations; above all, by the immense beds of shells, and zoophytes, deposited in the bosom of mountains.

The ancient poets, who have ever been the echoes of received opinions, Virgil, Ovid, and others, report in good verse, how an irruption of the ocean separated Sicily from Italy: and no person now doubts that the greatest part of the Mediterranean, though under different names, were invasions of the same ocean, which has produced these archipelagos interspersed with so many islands, which are no other than the tops of mountains which the sea has usurped, and covered; that the Baltic is a branch of the north-sea, which has separated some country formerly united, such as Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, which appears to have been but one continent: that France and England which are now separated by the Channel, have been formerly joined, as the skilful geographer, Bouchin, has indicated by the shallowness of places, by the analogous nature, the sameness of the soil, and the continuation of the mountains.

Such is a part of the reasoning of our author on his first proposition; specious, but not conclusive; rather founded upon conjecture than fact. We have taken this opportunity of announcing this curious publication to the public, though we have neither leisure nor limits to give at present a complete analysis; but shall resume the subject in a future Number.

*Voyage en Guinée, & dans les Isles Caraïbes, en Amérique; par Paul Edman Isert ci-devant medecin-inspecteur de sa Majesté Danoise dans ses Possessions en Afrique; tiré de sa Correspondance avec ses amis : traduit de l'Allemand.*

*Travels in Guinea, and into the Caribbee Islands in America.*

**P**ERHAPS no species of publications have been so much multiplied in our time, as travels; he who has seen wishes to relate, and he who relates what has been seen at a distance, makes himself heard very readily.

History always amuses, says Cicero; no matter how it is written; and this remark may be equally applied to travels.

The author of these letters, concerning Guinea, has travelled through the Danish territories on the gulf of Benin, in the countries of Akra and Popo, on the borders of Juida, which he calls Fida; for the names of these countries vary according to the different pronunciation of Europeans.

He had occasion to make a journey of mere curiosity in the kingdom of Juida, which lies more inland than the country which he was to inspect: and this kingdom has often been described by travellers, in a manner much more extended and methodical than the Danish physician has been able to perform in a correspondence, written apparently in such haste, and at different intervals.

A great part of this correspondence is, indeed, employed in mentioning all the events of a little war between two petty negroe tribes, the Adeens, and the Augueens.

But although this account might be abridged without inconvenience, it furnished the author always with some particulars, which confirmed the observations of other travellers, concerning the negroes, their character, their manners, and their abilities.

The author informs us in his preface, that he was particularly desirous to write the natural history of man: this is an excellent object, but the execution has not been always answerable; and botanists, who seek the nomenclature and description of foreign plants, will, perhaps, be more satisfied with the author, than the philosopher who seeks the knowledge of man.

Those who have afforded us the best accounts of the country watered by the Niger, the Senegal, the Gambia, and by the different channels which are the branches of these great rivers, agree in thinking that the negroe is generally courageous, that he is neither deficient in abilities nor industry; and that he is endowed with a prodigious memory.

Superstition and despotism blast the fruits of these natural  
qua-



qualities; and, in the frightful servitude to which they are reduced in our American colonies, often substitutes in their place all the vices of slaves.

When they have acquired from us these vices, the greater part of the colonists have represented the negroes, under colours extremely unfavourable; and we have frequently believed this account, without remembering that the negroe, of whom they speak, is a being of their own creation, the child of slavery, and not of nature.

Sensible travellers, who have however observed him in his natural soil, have drawn a different portrait of him; and the Danish doctor, in the scattered traits which we can collect from him, agrees with them. No one is ever stupid, who possesses a great memory; and that of the negroes is so faithful and certain, that it serves them in the place of registers and annals. At the end of forty years, they remember what has been deliberated in their assemblies, that which has passed in a combat, or has been regulated in a treaty; as if the transaction had taken place the preceding day. The old men are the depositaries of these traditions, and are considered by their nation as living books.

With regard to the despotism which crushes them, if we knew not the pride of men, of whatever country or colour they may be, we could not conceive that in a country, where the enjoyments are necessarily, throughout the whole, as bounded as the knowledge, men could be as jealous of power as in those fertile countries of Asia, where the opulence of nature seems to exhaust itself for certain despots;—that a miserable chief of some villages, formed of huts, whose principal riches consist in a bad European hat, a scarlet cloak, and some toys, should sport with the inferiority of his neighbours, as insolently as the greatest Mogul, or the Padishack. Nothing is, however, more certain, than that adoration is quite as humble, and tyranny as cruel, amongst the negroe nations, as in the palaces of the eastern monarchs.

The barbarous custom of immolating a certain number of slaves upon the tombs of the kings, is from time immemorial established in Guinea: they renew this massacre every year, to celebrate the birth-day of the reigning king.

‘ If any one demands of the king why he does not abolish so shocking a practice, which is even injurious to his finances, since he could derive much wealth for the slaves who are executed; he replies, that it is not in his power to abrogate a custom as ancient as the monarchy itself, and that an innovation of this nature would probably produce a rebellion of his subjects.’

‘ This is then the state to which ignorance reduces men. They would

would revolt if they were not sacrificed! alas! such is the dominion of early prejudice, strengthened by superstition and habit. The whole world, ancient and modern, abounds with similar examples; the Spaniards would rise if one took away their holy inquisition! and shall we be astonished that in all times, and in every place, the first desire, that is to say, the instinct of tyranny, is to brutalize men, to consecrate ignorance, and to proscribe instruction? This instinct is strengthened by the stupidity produced by tyranny: when it arrives at the highest degree, it proceeds so far as to say, whoever possesses more knowledge than myself, shall be put to death.

The author cites, as a proof of the arbitrary power of the king of Dahamay, a fact which will appear monstrous, but which is common both in Asia and Africa, two parts of the world where despotism has been naturalized from the remotest antiquity.

‘In one of those annual feasts, of which I have spoken above; the king passed before the unfortunate people, who were tied to the bottom of the royal scaffold for execution that day. One of them could not console himself, and uttered lamentable sighs. O! how happy, exclaimed he, is this person, whilst I am plunged in misery!— The king asked what the malefactor said; they related it to him; the king, turning himself, replied: this comical creature is not certainly a fool; and immediately raising him, he commanded that his cords should be untied, and ordered that they should give him some cloaths and money, to enable him to return home. But it was necessary he should replace the victim he had liberated; and he performed this duty, by seizing, from among the surrounding croud, the first whom he saw, and immediately had him bound with the others, and executed that day.’

With regard to that species of courage which despises death, the following is a fact among many others, which demonstrates that the negroes are as capable of it as any other people.

‘The king of Akim, a tributary of the king of Assianthy, requested permission from him to make war upon a smaller nation, and obtained it upon condition that he should, after the victory, share with him the booty. He put himself at the head of his troops, and obtained the victory; but as he got very little plunder, he conceived he might reserve it to his own use. Some time after, he learnt that the king of Assianthy intended to send to demand his head; and as he knew that this sentence, once passed, would never be revoked, he summoned his principal ministers; related to them the misfortune which menaced him; and added, that he could devise nothing better, than to expedite his own retreat to the other world. His ministers did



did not think it proper that he should make this journey alone, and therefore insisted upon accompanying him.

‘ For this purpose, they ordered as many barrels of gunpowder as there were persons: every one seated himself upon his own; they placed in the midst of them a barrel of brandy, and tobacco, with the head of each open: they smoked and drank reciprocally to their good journey, till the king gave the signal, upon which every one was to thrust in his lighted pipe in his barrel of gunpowder. All these heroes acquitted themselves of their commission, and thus put a glorious end to their existence.’

The account, given by all travellers, of the worship rendered by the negroes of Juida, to the innocent kind of serpents called fetiches, is confirmed by this Danish author. He represents that ‘ the serpent fetiche, is the first divinity, and is here in the highest veneration.’

‘ It would not be well for an European to attack or kill it. I have seen it many times, and it is really a beautiful creature; it is the length and thickness of an arm. The under colour is grey, intermixed with streaks of yellow and brown. One would think it possessed a consciousness that nobody dared to injure it, for it goes boldly into all houses: it is not a hurtful creature; it harms nobody.

‘ Walking one day in a garden of the fort, I saw one coiled up, sleeping at the foot of a tree; I was infinitely pleased at this discovery, and considered it some moments with satisfaction: but as I was upon the point of getting a vase to preserve it in spirits of wine, a negroe, who worked in the garden, unfortunately perceived my intended prey, and I was soon deprived of my booty: he went out of the garden in great haste, and returned quickly with a priest, who, at the sight of the serpent, threw himself prostrate on his face against the ground, kissed the serpent three times, muttered some words, prepared his girdle to wrap it in, took it from the ground with such precaution, that it did not even awake, and carried it into the temple, where there is always meat and drink prepared for these creatures, whether they come to enjoy it or not.’

It is clear that the most happy condition in Africa is, to be the serpent fetiche, at least if one has not the misfortune to meet one of these European doctors, who would have very little scruple in killing the best and most harmless creature, because it had a beautiful skin, in order to preserve it in spirits of wine.

Our Dane, so evil intentioned against the good fetiche, embarked in a slave ship for the American islands, to be an ocular witness of the cruelties which are exercised in the voyage over these unfortunate people, destined for slavery; and mentions them with that indignation, which is natural upon seeing a fel-

low creature unworthily treated. It is unnecessary, in this place, to distinguish the instances: they are already too well known. All the powers of philosophy and eloquence have been employed to denounce, in the most energetic terms, the oppression and avarice of the Europeans. The author now before us was himself, in some degree, a victim of these crimes. In one of those revolts which frequently arise in the negro vessels, that in which he was, incurred the greatest danger. The unfortunate slaves were fastened in pairs by iron collars, and crowded together with no weapons but those of despair. In this situation, by their united efforts, they loosened their shackles, broke with the rapidity of lightning upon their oppressors, tore their arms from their hands, and destroyed many of them. Two similar instances of vengeance, which occurred in 1788, are recorded by Mr. Isert; the first in an English, the latter in a Dutch vessel. In both, all the whites were massacred; and in one, the blacks seeing some coasting vessels coming towards them, leaped overboard, and perished, to the number of five hundred. The unfortunate adventurers were less happy in the second instance: after the destruction of their tyrants on board, they were retaken by the negroes on the coast, and once more reduced to slavery. In the revolt, which took place in the vessel in which Mr. Isert himself was, he was the first person whom the negroes attacked with a razor, the only weapon in their power. In their efforts to destroy him, however, they did not succeed: he was rescued from the assault: a great number of the blacks were killed, and the remainder put into chains.

As far as these letters may be judged of through the medium of a translation, the style does not appear very excellent. The familiar and poetical ingredients are not well incorporated. Shades so different demand the hand of taste, to select and blend them agreeably. The phraseology of the translator is remarkably incorrect in several instances, and we have much hesitation in conceiving that the Danish author is so little informed in natural history, as to call a serpent an *insect*.

*Ferdinand et Constance, Roman Sentimental: Par Rbenoit Feith: traduit du Hollandois. 8vo. Paris.*

*Ferdinand and Constance, a sentimental Romance.*

WE thought, that the peculiar nature of this work would apologize for our introducing it, though occurring to us only through the medium of a translation, and, so far as we can collect, neither an elegant, nor a faithful one. The style of



of the original author is, we apprehend, full of imagery and imagination : it is the style of Fenelon, perhaps of Mrs. Robinson. This seems to be the charm that has contributed to its success, and this charm is here lost. But a Dutch novel is a curiosity, and we shall give a short account of it.

If examined by the perfect standards of the comic epopee of our own country, we shall find the present novel very defective. It has no complication of incidents ; curiosity is scarcely raised, and the violation of all probability, if our own manners were to be the standard, would be highly disgusting. The details of our author are, however, as animated and passionate as his events are insipid and uninteresting : it seems to be called a Sentimental Romance, because it contains nothing but sentiments.

Ferdinand and Constantia, a protestant minister, and his daughter, are all the personages of the drama. The form is epistolary, but except five or six letters, Ferdinand bears the whole burthen of the correspondence ; and to judge of the author with propriety, we must recollect, that the persons are recluses, possessing honest and sensible hearts, with a romantic imagination. The letters are moral and passionate essays, and the passions of the personages are subservient to the most pure and delicate virtue. We shall add the outline of the story :

Ferdinand is passionately fond of Constantia, and is beloved by her with equal tenderness. They were soon to be married, when he suspected himself betrayed by a train of circumstances which appeared to justify the suspicion. ' Could Constantia betray me ? ' cries he ; ' Why does this dreadful thought appear so revolting ? Had a thousand witnesses attested it, I would not have believed them : I would not have even trusted your protestations, my friend. Alas ! Why should I have heard and seen it myself ! ' He supposes, that a meeting between Constantia and her lawyer, their common friend, who was sent for to make the will of Constantia, a testimony of the generous tenderness of the future bride, was an amorous rendezvous. This is the hinge on which the whole turns. Strange, that a woman who was going to bestow herself, should have thought the giving of her fortune an additional proof of tenderness ! The whole was the contrivance of a perfidious friend, and is explained in a long letter to Ferdinand, of which we shall give a short abstract, with some quotations.

While the wedding day was fast approaching, Constantia determined to make this will, and, while her instructions were executing by the lawyer, she received the following letter, in consequence of Ferdinand's mistake, from the treachery of his friend.

' The connection of the most tender love, which united us

to each other, has been cruelly dissolved — and it is you, faithless and perjured Constantia, it is you, who have resolved to destroy it. Oh heavens! what will be the misery of my future life? Was it necessary, that this fatal stroke should be given by her whom I loved to the utmost pitch my soul was capable of?—But I will not reproach you—no, not once. Enjoy, if you can, that happiness which my heart, whose affections had no limits, was incapable of giving. My presence shall not occasion any remorse. ‘When you read this letter, I shall have left the city, to finish my life in some distant solitude!’

The will was neglected; but Constantia, feeling most painfully the loss of Ferdinand, resolved to spend her life on a retired estate. Previous to her going, she completed the fatal will. ‘My only design, says she, was to contribute to the happiness of the only man I ever could love. I cannot accomplish this purpose myself, or by the exertions of an affection which occupies my whole soul. Ferdinand despises me and my love. My fortune however remains, and I shall not live long: by its means I can only now render him happy; and to whom can I leave it with more satisfaction, than to the man, I shall love to the last moment of my life! He possesses it already, by a sacred right. I once promised to unite his fate to mine, and I did it without any view of interest. Though he has forfeited his word, I will religiously preserve mine, and heaven knows, I do it with the greatest satisfaction.’

In a subsequent conversation with the lawyer, he found that Digby, the friend of Ferdinand, plausible and apparently sincere, had lately offered Constantia his hand. The circumstance is related with a tedious formality; but we shall hasten to the discovery. The lawyer, in the evening, was sent for to Digby, who was said to be very ill. ‘I flew, says he, in a moment to his house: the wretch was at the point of death. Oh! sir, how dreadful does vice appear, at its last moments? A cold sweat, excited by cruel remorse, ran down his face. I was scarcely in his chamber, when wringing his hands, he began to accuse himself. How wicked was the soul of this traitor! With a voice hoarse, and hesitating from despair, he gave me the history of his life, which was a series of impostures and crimes; but this unfortunate villain is now before his supreme judge. May he find mercy!’

The imposture of Digby differs only in words from that of Iago, and a hundred other villains: the meeting about the will was the foundation on which he completed his villainy. The billet of Constantia to her lawyer fell into Digby’s hand, and he conveyed it to Ferdinand. Ferdinand also heard the last words of Constantia. ‘No, said she; I have reflected ma-



turely : dispose of all that I possess : I shall in no respect alter my intention.'

After this event, we have said, Ferdinand leaves her : his abrupt departure appears a little extraordinary : it would not have been the conduct of a modern man of fashion ; but it must be remembered, that Constantia is represented as Virtue personified ; that, in her, he adores irreproachable virtue, and from the moment, he believes her perfidious, his adoration ceases. When the villainy was discovered, Ferdinand writes to Constantia, confessing his fault, and imploring her pardon ; but, in the same moment, Constantia is informed, that he is on the point of marrying the virtuous and too sensible Cecilia, daughter of the protestant minister, near whose habitation he had retired. It is true, that Cecilia, so interesting by her virtues and her charms, has the most romantic passion for him ; a passion equally invincible and disinterested. It is true also, that, touched with compassion for this unfortunate girl, who was daily pining, while he thought Constantia unworthy of his love, he offered her his hand : but Constantia did not know, that Cecilia, acquainted with his former connection, had refused his offer. Constantia not having been told of the refusal, thought his penitent letter an insult ; but, in a few days, she heard of the death of Cecilia, and every thing that had passed between her and Ferdinand. At the same time, she knew that every one spoke of the unchangeable fidelity of a man who had resisted the most delicate proofs of affection, and preserved his first attachment inviolate. Constantia does not, however, yet yield ; she sent a faithful confidant to examine every action, every step of Ferdinand, in the solitude where he wept for Cecilia, and regretted Constantia. The emissary found means of seeing and hearing every thing. Ferdinand breathes but for his Constantia : it is her that he adores, that he calls upon, when weeping on the tomb of Cecilia, and pining with his grief he seems hastening to his last hour. Constantia yet hesitates : she will see with her own eyes, and follows him in his nocturnal walks, unseen. Concealed in the wood, she hears the tender complaints of the unhappy Ferdinand. After a soliloquy which marks the most fatal despair, he seizes a pistol, and, in the moment he was about to discharge it, Constantia starts from her concealment and saves him. The consequence is easily seen.

The story, though not uncommon, is simple, and, in some of its parts, interesting. The catastrophe is too studied, and Constantia appears like the goddess in a Grecian drama. For the language, the best apology is, that the personages are recluses, and that, in retirement, the imagination is always more alive, passions more violent, and the expressions warmer, more

pointedly from the heart. A few friends too secluded from the world, are detached as it were from it: they are every thing to each other, and the whole world is the spot they inhabit. To be characteristic then, they should be singular; they should feel and speak in a manner different from the rest of mankind. But, with every apology we can make, the present novel would not, we fear, be generally interesting; and our sentimental translators will scarcely pass over to the United Provinces for the ornaments of our circulating libraries.

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*Historia Litteraria et Critica Forcipum et vectium Obstetriciorum, auctore Johanne Mulder. 1794.*

THE construction of the obstetric forceps, and other instruments to facilitate labour, is a subject which, of late years, has greatly occupied the attention of midwifery practitioners; and the present will doubtless be a welcome publication, to such of them as think, that there is room for farther improvement. By looking back to the inventions of those on whose ideas we are supposed to have improved, some new thought may strike the mind, some error may be retrieved, or some obstruction removed.

Candidly speaking, indeed, this is the most favourable view in which the elaborate, and seemingly accurate publication before us, is to be considered; nay, we are perhaps justified in apprehending, that the very extensive display we here find, of the different inventions which have succeeded each other, may prove a farther temptation to the capricious alteration of an instrument, which cannot be equally good in all the variety of shapes in which it is used and recommended at present. If every accoucheur who aspires at a name in his profession is to set about improving the forceps, we shall, ere long, be unable to distinguish which of them deserves a preference, and society will wholly lose the benefit of the invention.

In the work under our consideration, Dr. Mulder has very minutely investigated this subject, and after successively describing the form and manner of applying the forceps, and vectis from the earliest period of their invention to the present day, enters into a critical examination of the principles on which these instruments ought to be constructed. In this inquiry, though pursued with considerable ingenuity, and supported by the testimony of actual experiment, we do not think it advisable to follow him, convinced that a partial display of the author's sentiments would prove little satisfactory to our medical readers. For these therefore we refer to the work, of the style and manner of which the following extract, on the utility of the vectis, will be a sufficient exemplification:

‘Forcipis utilitatem capite praecedenti pertractantes, in  
omni



omni partus casu, versionem non admittente, atque in quo parturientis pelvis diameter conjugata superior 3 poll. minor non est, illius ope partum absolvi posse vidimus;—an igitur vectis instrumentum obstetricium est superfluum?—Hoc non videtur: sua quoque Vectis est utilitas, quin imo eidem sua prae Forcipe praestantia: non tamen in omni casu, sed tantum in nonnullis magno quidem encomio dignum vectem censemus, videamus igitur in quibusnam hoc valeat, ut simul, indicatâ vectis utilitate, terminum ponamus illius usui.

‘Ubi defectus dolorum ad partum, vel partium mollium Parturientis nimia siccitas, similiaque in causa sunt retardati partus, vectem eundem usum cum forcipe praestare posse statuimus; ubi vero partium parturientis adest nimia rigiditas in magis successivam dilatationem forceps adhibenda videtur.—In relatione caput inter foetus & pelvim parturientis iniquâ non indiscriminatim adhibendum esse vectem censemus, sed quando tanta hoc respectu remorae causa est, ut capitis compressio requiratur, forceps eligenda videtur, cum vectis ope non nisi inaequalis & incondita compressio possit institui.—Ad iniquam capitis foetus positionem emendandam, praecavendamque egregius erit vectis usus.—In haemorrhagiâ denique uteri, convulsionibus, syncope similibusque ubi versionem instituere ratum non duxerit obstetricator, pro variâ indicatione, urgente vel minus, alterutrius instrumenti usus aut vectis aut forcipis potior habenda ratio est.

Nunquam igitur, nisi causa leviori partum retardante vel accelerandum jubente, vectis est applicandus, atque hisce quidem in casibus vectem forcipi praeferrem, cum instrumentorum quam minimum apparatus ostendere semper consultius videatur, &, si vel fieri possit, nullum; hoc autem requisitum in casu levioris retentionis ope vectis impleri posse certum est; absque enim ut parturiens, vel adstantes, de instrumenti adplicatione quid percipiant, vectis in usum vocari potest, forceps non item:—atque hoc quidem vectis esse prerogativum existimamus.

Caveat interim quivis ab usu vectis in casibus, ubi graviore de causâ retineatur caput: tunc enim illius actio nimium esset intendenda, eâque parturienti & foetui mala quamplurima insequerentur, quae quidem quam maxime evitanda sunt.

Determinatis itaque sic adhibendi vectis terminis, concludimus vectis usum concomitantia mala non adeo instrumento, sed obstetricatoribus in genere tribuenda esse.

Atque hic subsistimus:—ut forcipis sic & vectis epicrisin aequo animo accipiant eruditi, juvenique errores ignorent hoc forte in capite subreptos, melioraque si noverint, minus recte dictis substituant.

We shall conclude this article with observing, that the

plates, which are eleven in number, are sufficiently well executed to afford the reader an accurate idea of the instruments represented, and that these are accompanied with a series of tables which place their relative dimensions in a comparative point of view.

*Olai Gerhardi Tychsen Elementale Syriacum sistens Grammaticam, Chrestomathiam et Glossarium, subjunctis novem tabulis ære expressis. Rostochii. 8vo. 1793.*

OF professor Tychsen's abilities, and of his attainments in oriental learning, we have already produced some valuable proofs. Our last Appendix contained a Review of his Treatise on *Arabic Coins*, and we have now the pleasure to bring forward two other of his works, which have just claims to attention. That an acquaintance with the oriental dialects in general, is of considerable importance to the understanding of the scriptures, no person will presume to deny; and that the Syriac, in particular, has been successfully applied, an abundance of examples will prove. To furnish then an elementary digest of the rudiments of the language, and at the same time a judicious selection of passages to facilitate the acquisition of it, together with the addition of a glossary in grammatical form, is an undertaking entitled to praise. The grammar itself is drawn up with much brevity and precision; as the annexed plan will evince. After having given the alphabetic characters, with their names, numerical value, and correspondence with the Hebrew, the rules for reading are subjoined. The properties of *nouns* are next discussed, as are those of the different *pronouns*. The nature of *suffixes* is then explained, a paradigm of the *perfect verb*, the accidents of the *verbs imperfect* ܠܐ, ܐܬܐ, ܐܬܐ, ܐܬܐ, ܐܬܐ ܐܬܐ, ܐܬܐ; and after the *syntax*, follow *tables of numerals*, and the *names of the days of the week, and the months*.

II. Specimens of the language *properly pointed*, are then annexed; and a variety of curious extracts, of which a list is subjoined.

1. Ordo dominica, Matth. vi. 9.

2. Specimen versionum Simplicis, Heracleensis, et Hierosolymitanæ. Joh. I. 1—5.

3. ——— Simplicis, et Hexaplaris. Psalmus I.

4. De dictionibus ܐܢܝܢ varia explicatione.

5. De navibus Salomonis Indiam proficiscentibus.

6. De ruinis Heliopolitanis Ægypti.

7. Jacobi Edeseni judicium de versionibus SS. Syriaca et Græcis.

8. De



8. De ficta tempore Theodosii M. apocalypsi S. Apost. Paulli.
9. Initium codicis mei (i. e. Auctoris) Ordinem baptismi apud Jacobitas exhibentis.
10. Ritus consecrationis aquæ baptismatis ex eodem codice.
11. Ordo baptismi parvi a S. Basilio Episc. Cæsar. constitutus ex eod. cod.
12. Initium codicis mei, ordinem lampadis describentis.
13. S. Ephræmi precatio solennis ex eodem codice.
14. Imperatoris Justiniani II. hæresis Phantasiastarum de corpore Christi et Mariæ.
15. Epochæ celebriores.
16. Causa cur Hebræi, Syri et Saraceni, noctem die priorem faciunt.
17. De causis defectus solis et lunæ hujusque phasium, nec non iridis.
18. Census capitalis ab Abdolmalecho Syris primum impositus.
19. De initiis monetæ Arabicæ.
20. De Porphyrio philosopho ejusque itinere Ætneo.
21. Ingeniosum lotricis Edeffenæ responsum, quo S. Ephræmi increpationem elusit.
22. Excerpta e libro facetiarum Barhebræi.
  - A) e capite XI.
  - B) e capite X. Parabola: Passer et Auceps.
23. Sententiæ Syriacæ et Carschunicæ.
24. Epitaphia.
  - I) Patriarcharum Nestorianum.
  - II) Monialium Monasterii S. Sergii.
  - III) Platonis.
  - IV) Palmyrenum bilingue.
25. Inscriptiones æri incisæ,
  - 1) in statua b. Virginis Mariæ e Palæstina Drepanum in Sicilia advecta.
  - 2) Palmyrenæ bilingues literis Syriacis transcripta A. B. C.
26. Specimen linguæ et scripturæ Mendæorum in Chaldæa.
27. Carminum specimina.
  - 1) Initium carminis S. Ephræmi in natalem Domini.
  - 2) ——— in Bardefanem.
  - 3) Epigramma Gregorii Barhebræi.
  - 4) Fragmentum deperditæ Syriacæ Homeri translationis.
  - 5) Specimen ineditæ glossæ Ebedjesu.
28. De Lusitanorum prima in Indiam navigatione.
- III. Specimens of the Syriac language, *without points*, then follow, under the subsequent titles;

## 29. Res naturales :

- 1) De mula pulla enixa.
  - 2) De pisce magno margaritariis in Bahrein infesto.
  - 3) De locustis Edeffenum agrum et Ægyptum devastantibus.
  - 4) De maxima gelatione Bagdadi.
  - 5) De terræ motu in Syria et Palæstina.
  - 6) De summa solis Bagdadi defectione.
  - 7) De prægrandium foricum genere pecori infesto.
  - 8) De hyænis hominibus funestis.
30. Epistola Mosis Mardeni de prima N. Test. Syr. editione, &c.
31. Nassairiorum in Phœnicia origo et historia.
32. Monumentum lapideum Syriacum in regno Sinensium.
33. De vana Astrologorum Bagdanensium prædictione.
34. De numis Arabicis inauratis et inargentatis.
35. Contenta libri Abulpharagii: *Narrationes Facite* inscripti.
36. Excerpta e Simeonis Stylitæ vita.

## IV. The next general title includes Specimina Carschunica, Syrorum Melchitarum.

- 1) Precatio sacerdotis solennis e codice MS. de ordine lampadis.
- 2) Epigraphe codicis mei de ordine baptismi.
- 3) ——— de ordine lampadis.
- 4) Nomina XII signorum Zodiaci cum Syriacis collata.
- 5) Donatio arboris nucis.
- 6) ——— quartæ partis arboris nucis.
- 7) ——— duarum linearum olearum.
- 8) Evang. Joh. iii. 16.

V. The fifth division consists of *Tabulæ Aneæ*.

- A) numeris I—VIII. distincta, quæ specimina ad palæographiam Syriacam spectantia exhibent, et cum Novi Fœderis e translationibus Simplicii, Philoxeniana rel. desumptis, tum codicum epigraphis absolvuntur.
- B) Tabula numero hæud insignita.
- n. I. Inscriptio Drepanensis.
  - II—V. Inscriptiones Palmyrenæ.
  - VI. Inscriptio Mendæa.
  - VII. Alphabetum Arabicum et Carschunicum.

VI. The *Glossary* forms the sixth part of this work, and the VIIth consists of Corrigenda et Addenda.

From this view of the work, it will easily be perceived, that it cannot but prove a very important desideratum to the student; inasmuch as it supplies, what the learned labours of Michaelis, Adler, and Kirsch, want, for facilitating the acquisition



tion of the Syriac, viz. the elements of its grammar, and a glossary to their selections.—Nor is this all: for the fac simile engravings, which are accurately executed, will be found to furnish the means of consulting such manuscripts as have not hitherto been submitted to the press.

*Olai Gerbardi Tychsen Ser. Duci regn. Mecklenburg. a Consiliis Aulæ, &c. Affertio Epistolaris de Peregrina Numorum Hasmonæorum Origine cum Tabula ænea. 4to. Rostoch.*

IN an article upon a former publication of Mr. Tychsen on this subject \*, we took occasion to point out some changes that the opinion of this learned writer had undergone, in respect to the coins of the Jews, usually denominated *Samaritan* †; it having been the object of his first tract to prove them intirely spurious. As the change of opinion in the learned professor was clearly the result of his dispute with Bayer, so the continuation of that controversy [for Bayer has replied to the *Diatribè* in a pamphlet, intituled, *Legitimidad de las monedas Hebræo-Samaritanas, confutacion de la Diatriba de Dn. Oloa Gerbardo Tychsen. En Valencia. 1793*] hath induced Mr. Tychsen to blend with his reply some remarks upon a paper, in the eleventh tome of the Göttingen Society, by Professor Th. C. Tychsen, of that university, intituled, *De numis Hasmonæorum*, &c. as well as to introduce a letter of his own to cardinal Borgia on the subject, another in defence of the coins by abbé Fabricii to the same cardinal, and a reply, under the same address, to the abbé's letter, which is followed by a summary, in two opposed columns, of the arguments used in support of these coins, and the objections offered against them. To the whole, another letter is annexed, containing notices of the state of Persepolis and its mintage, in the eighth century of the Christian æra.

Mr. Tychsen intimates, that what his name-fake at Göttingen, as well as what Bayer have advanced, would have been overlooked by him, but for the letter above mentioned of abbé Fabricii. In our judgment, however, (and it has the support of a friend who has closely studied the subject) Mr. Tychsen's conclusions do not carry with them that fulness of conviction for which they are credited by himself.

As to the opinion of professor Tychsen of Göttingen, who, from the coins of Jonathan, John Hyrcanus, and Antigonus, infers, that those with the name of Simon were certainly of Simon *Maccabæus*, we are ready to allow, that this conclusion is by no means absolute; nor do we concur with him in thinking, that there are no arguments deducible either from

\* De Numis Hebraicis Diatribè, &c. See Vol. XI p. 505.

† Die Unachtheit der Judischen Münzen mit Hebraischen und Samaritanischen Buchstaben, bewiesen von Oluf Gerhard Tychsen. Rostock. 1779.

coins themselves, or the testimony of any ancient writer to shew that money was stricken by Barcochebas; but, notwithstanding these concessions, we are prepared to contend, that the coins of Jonathan, John Hyrcanus, and especially of Antigonus, are greatly in favour of Simon Maccabæus; whilst the only ground for ascribing the name of *Simon* to Barcochebas, is its appearance on the recoined denarii of Trajan.

How far what Bayer, in the tract above mentioned, has advanced, be or be not, as Mr. Tychsen affirms, an *assumption* instead of *proof*, we are not competent to determine, from not having had the satisfaction of reading the work; but from a perusal of our friend's papers referred to, we are led to observe, in respect to the *origin* of these coins, that he agrees so far with Mr. Tychsen, as in the instance of Jonathan at least, to admit they were *Syrian*; contending nevertheless, that Simon Maccabæus coined, to shew his independence of the Syrian crown, and Antigonus in particular followed his example. Our friend just mentioned, had foreseen, and to us satisfactorily answered the objection, that Simon Maccabæus hath not styled himself high priest on his coins; by observing that the high priests, Simon's predecessors, and even himself, had holden that office under the authority of the Syrian kings, wherefore in coining, *as the head of a nation asserting its independence of that crown*, he more properly styled himself *prince*.

As to the name of *Mattathias*, which occurs on the coin of Antigonus, being the Jewish name of that prince (which Mr. Barthelemy first conjectured, and Mr. Tychsen has built considerably upon) we have our friend's authority for maintaining, that it proceeds altogether from an error in reading the inscription on the coin; and, we trust he will pardon us, if we anticipate his own publication, and here give his interpretation, which speaks for itself:

### מתתיה הכהן הגדל צן יהללה

This he literally renders: '*The Injunction of Mattathias the High Priest, he (that is, king Antigonus) hath made it glorious.*' On the face of the coin is ANTIGONOS BACIAEYC.—What the injunction of Mattathias to his family was, the annexed passage will explain: 1 Maccab. II. 64. '*Wherefore, ye my sons, be valiant, and shew yourselves men in behalf of the law; for by it shall ye obtain glory.*'—All the pertinence of the inscription, in opposition to *Herod*, will not here require to be shewn. Mr. Tychsen reads this inscription מתתיה הכהן הגדל נשיא יהודה and renders *Mattathia sacerdos magnus princeps Judææ*.

The letter relating to *Persepolis*, is curious and important.



OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT  
OF  
FOREIGN LITERATURE,

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FRANCE.

THE unexampled ravages and atrocity of the present war, interrupting even literary commerce and intercourse, our accounts of foreign literature must of necessity be imperfect; but we hope, by future opportunities, to supply present defects.

A translation into French has appeared at Paris, in one volume 8vo, of the works of Thomas Payne, the noted political author.

A new edition has been published, at the same city, of the Voyage to Madagascar and the East Indies, by Abbé Rochon, a work of great merit, formerly noticed in our Review. It may be added, that Rochon was the friend of the celebrated Poivre, governor of the French colonies in Madagascar and the Isle of Bourbon: and their friendship was cemented by an equal love of philosophy and the useful sciences.

Moyens d'Accroître, &c. The Means of increasing and confirming the National Power, in increasing the private Wealth of each Individual; or a New System favourable to Agriculture, &c. by G. Veirieu, Paris, 8vo pamphlet. This is a report given in to one of the French committees, and its plans and details will not admit of abridgment. The author pretends, by a new mode of managing *hypothèques* or mortgages, and by rendering them public, to increase the wealth of France to a prodigious degree.

Guillaume Tell, &c. William Tell, a Drama, in three Acts, in Prose and Verse, by Sedaine; the Music by Grétry, Paris, 1794, 8vo. This is one of the temporary pieces represented to nourish, in the French, the new flame of liberty. The music is superior to the language, which is often careless and prosaic. M. Grétry has eminent skill in accommodating his music to the words and the passions.

Piron avec ses Amis, &c. Piron with his Friends, or the Manners of Time Past, a Comedy, in one Act, mingled with Songs,

Songs, by M. Deschamps, Paris, 8vo. This is a pretty little piece. Laudel, the son of a tavern-keeper, marries Babet. Among the wedding guests, are Piron, Collé, and Gallet; and their usual gaiety accompanies these friends. Piron's bon-mots in particular, add rapid wings to time. The night being far advanced, the other guests retire, and our three poets are left to themselves. After some conversation, Collé and Gallet desire to see their friend home; he objects, because he must make some verses, and wishes to go alone. They insist, because robberies are frequent, and Piron is dressed like a financier. Aha! says the poet of Dijon, it is then my coat only you desire to see in safety: you know how Bias got rid of the embarrassment of riches, and thus I imitate his example. At once he pulls off his coat, throws it at them, and runs out: Gallet runs after. The three friends are seized by the watch, and conducted before a magistrate. The most diverting scenes follow, the three authors amusing themselves at the expence of the watch, of the magistrate's clerk, and of the magistrate himself. The neighbours, awaked by the noise, come in; one of them knows Piron; and the magistrate, instead of sending the friends to prison, invites them to dine with him on the morrow.

In one of the French journals, has appeared A Memoir on the Improvement of Wool, and the Method of nurturing the Flocks to that End, by M. Oehler of Crimitschau in Saxony. As the subject deservedly attracts great notice in this country, we shall lay before our readers an abstract of this paper. The author begins with informing us, that he has much improved his own flocks and wool; and that the rules he lays down are derived from experience. By good wool, he understands that of which the filament is fine, and in some sort transparent, pliant, and hollow. He wishes for a chemical analysis of good, bad, and even spoiled wool, as a mean of judging concerning the causes of its quality. The transparency of the wool not only testifies its own goodness, but the perfect health of the animal; and Mr. Oehler regards it as the most essential distinction. If the sheep be sickly, the circulation of the minute juices in the wool is obstructed, and the transparency destroyed. English wool is so remarkable for this brilliancy, that, in some articles of manufacture, it resembles camels' hair. To obtain fine wool, not only the health of the animals must be diligently attended to, but it is necessary that a good breed be procured. Though our author's pasturages were excellent, his wool was of a bad sort, and void of transparency. An essential cause he found to be, the irregular distribution of the winter forage, and the inattention to its proper preservation. Most of the shepherds in Germany do not attend to this. In the



the beginning of winter too little is given; and on the approach of spring, too much. Some fall into the opposite fault. The forage should be abundant and regular at all times, and the flock will thus remain in uniform vigour. Another abuse is, the manner in which the forage is kept in the upper part of the stable; thus receiving all the exhalations from the animals, and from their evacuations, whence it acquires a bitter and disagreeable taste, so that the sheep will not eat it in a proper quantity, although ready to perish with hunger. The seeds, fragments, and dirt, falling from the loft also, injure the wool to a surprising degree. To remedy this defect, Mr. Oehler caused his loft to be completely boarded, and a kind of cieling given to the sheep-house: and he opened two large air-holes at its ends, resembling chimneys. By this arrangement, many advantages were procured. 1. The air-passages, by purifying the air of the stable, left it always in a moderate temperature. 2. The wool was kept in constant cleanness, no dirt falling from the roof. 3. The forage, preserved from exhalations, was always sweet, and greedily-devoured to the last. 4. After winter, the sheep left the stable as gay and lively as they entered it; and not one of them was afflicted with a sort of mange, which that winter prevailed among the neighbouring flocks. 5. The wool was as good as the race could possibly produce: and sold at a far superior price to any in the neighbourhood; as did the animals meant for slaughter. All these advantages arose the very first season. He concludes with advising against the clipping of lambs, as injurious to their future health, and to the profit of the farmer.

*Precis Historique, &c. An Historical Relation of the Siege of Valenciennes, by a Soldier of the Battalion of Charente, Paris, 8vo.* This detail is interesting, being written by a person who, as a soldier, as the president of a club, and an assistant in the council of war, was enabled to inspect all the operations and the fluctuations of the public opinion. From his recital, it appears that the garrison displayed astonishing valour, during a terrible bombardment of forty-two days. The inhabitants lent no assistance; and the author thinks that the general and the commissioners did not shew the necessary firmness. This tract is written in a plain modest style, void of that declamation so usual and so unsuitable, in French republican writers.

M. Desmarets has announced the invention of a hydraulic engine of great simplicity, but of eminent power, in raising water, in draining marshes, and in extinguishing conflagrations. It may also be used in ships.

*Le Vieux Celibataire, &c. The Old Bachelor, a Comedy, in five Acts, and in Verse, by M. Collin Harville, represented*

on the national Theatre, Paris, 1794, 8vo. This subject has often been tried on the French stage, and our author mentions in his Preface the preceding attempts, but seems a stranger to the Old Bachelor of Congreve. *Avisse*, the author of the *Gouvernante*, acted in 1737, has been supposed to have furnished Mr. Collin with some sketches; but the latter denies that he had ever read that piece. *Le vieux Garçon*, and *le Celibataire* of Dorat, he confesses he has used. The plot of the present comedy is simple, yet interesting. Yet it is far from being a play of the first class.

*Le Chateau du Diable*, &c. *The Devil's Castle*, a comedy, in four Acts, and in Prose, by M. Loaisel Treogate, Paris, 8vo. A wild romance, which only aspires to great magic of decoration, yet with some scenes of real comedy. On the stage it was very favourably received.

*Culte Philosophique*, &c. *Philosophical Worship*, by M. Labastays, Paris, 8vo. This small pamphlet establishes the belief of a God, the immortality of the soul, and a future state. We rejoice that the professed atheism of a few, has become unpalatable in France. In truth, atheism and fanaticism are equally the creeds of the weak and ignorant: of the two, atheism is the most absurd; and no great man whatever can be named, in ancient or modern times, who was an atheist. But the clergy infinitely hurt their own interest and reputation; nay, religion itself, by affecting to confound atheism and deism.

## ITALY.

*Breve Ragionamento*, &c. A brief Discourse on the Electric Conductor, erected by the Order of Pius VI. the present Pontiff, on the Church of St. Mary of the Angels at Rome; by P. L. Gilli, Rome, 1793, 8vo. This tract we only mention on account of a singularity in the inscription, placed in the church, importing, that having been injured by lightning, it was repaired by Pius VI. who

ET ELECTRICIS FRANKLINII VIRGIS  
AD FUTURAM TUTELAM MUNIRI IUSSIT.

Were the venerable Franklin alive, he would be not a little surprised to find his name thus honoured in a church of Rome, by command of the pontiff: but what would be his amazement to find his holiness protected by English guards!

SPAIN.



## S P A I N.

We can only announce the following new Spanish publications, having no further account of them.

Noticias Americanas, &c. Notices concerning North and South America, a physical and historical Dialogue.

Since the death of Joseph Ponz, the eighteenth volume of his Tour of Spain has appeared.

Nuevas Observaciones Fisicas, &c. New Observations on Rural Oeconomy, the Manner of perfecting and preserving the Breeds of Horses, and on other interesting Objects, by M. Malatos.

Elements of the Veterinary Art, by the same.

Uranografia, u Descripcion del Cielo, &c. Uranography, or a description of the Heavens, by M. Garriga, one Volume in 4to. with three Maps of the Constellations.

Origen de las Leyes, y Artes, &c. The Origin of Laws, Arts, and Sciences, and their first Progress among the Ancients. Vol. II.

## G E R M A N Y.

Christian Dan. Ebelings erdbeschreibung, &c. A geographical and Topographical Description of North America, by Mr. Ebeling. Part. I. Hamburgh, 1793, 8vo. This work is intended as a supplement to Busching's Geography; and is executed with care and fidelity. The author is a warm admirer of the United States, and much blames the conduct of England in regard to them. This first part only comprizes the provinces of New-Hampshire, and Massachusetts Bay.

‘In the province of Massachusetts, there is not above the twenty-fifth part of the land yet brought into culture, comprehending the Main, a cold and barren country, which does not reckon above 100,000 inhabitants, on an extent of 1500 square leagues.

‘The Negro-trade has been abolished here since the year 1788. It is not even permitted to hire the negroes themselves, upon any other footing than that of the other domestics and labourers. In Massachusetts are reckoned 5000 free negroes, who enjoy all the rights of citizens, excepting that it is not permitted to them to contract marriages with the whites.’

Malerische Prospecte von Italien, &c. Picturesque Views of Italy, by Dies, Reinhart, and Mechau; Nuremberg, 1792, 1793, oblong folio, price of each Number, containing six Plates; four rix dollars. Four numbers of this work have appeared: the execution is fine and the subjects well chosen. Messieurs Dies, Reinhart, and Mechau, during their residence

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at Rome, agreed to discover the finest views, which had not yet been engraven, and to unite their labours in this work. Mr. Frauenholz having undertaken the publication, invited an eminent engraver from Paris, who has employed great skill and care in the execution.

The twenty-four plates, which have already appeared, represent the following objects:

1. The Fountain of Egeria.
2. Ponte Molle, with the Environs.
3. Part of the Coridors of the Coliseum.
4. Part of the Villa of Mecenās near Tivoli.
5. Ponte Lupo near Tivoli.
6. The great Cascade of Tivoli.
7. Castello Gondolfo.
8. Pallazuola.
9. The Entrance of the Forest of Marino.
10. Another View of Castello Gondolfo.
11. The great Cascade of Tivoli, seen from a Distance.
12. The Lake of Nemi.
13. } Subiaco and its Environs.
14. }
15. Ponte Salaro.
16. Views of the Aqueducts Martia and Claudia.
17. }
18. } Two Views of the Villa Borghese.
19. Ruins of the Villa of Ventidici near Tivoli.
20. Part of the Coliseum.
21. Nemi.
22. The Temple of Vesta near Tivoli, with the Rocks beneath it.
23. The Hospital of St. Francis near Subiaco.
24. Environs of Subiaco.

Eight more numbers will complete this beautiful work.

#### H O L L A N D.

At Haarlem has appeared, in two volumes, 8vo, A Translation of the Voyage on the Rhine, from Mentz to Dusseldorf, originally published in French by M. de Beaunoir, formerly known in the dramatic career. This voyage was performed in 1789; and is well described.

Discours sur l'Egalité des Hommes, &c. A Discourse on the Equality of Mankind, and on the Rights and Duties arising from it, by Mr. Peter Paulus, formerly Counsellor of the Admiralty, &c. Haarlem, 1794, 8vo. This is a translation from the Dutch. Not having seen the work, we shall lay before our readers the sentiments of a foreign journalist.

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‘ When the interesting subject, discussed in this Essay, began to occupy the minds, and to excite the zeal of different writers who have entered this career, it was to be regretted that it was not placed upon the foundations of religion, as laid down in the writings of the evangelists and apostles. Somewhat will still be wanting to the evidence and solidity, if not of the principles themselves, at least of their demonstration, while not fixed on the firm basis of the Gospel; at least as long as the perfect agreement on this point, (essential to the happiness of present and future generations) between the dictates of the Divine Author of Christianity, and those of enlightened reason, are not explained. Whence, it is to be feared, that one of these authorities may be turned against the other; by opposing and discrediting the Gospel, as opposite to the rights of man and to humanity; or by calumniating the latter, as the fruits of irreligion and atheism.

‘ If philosophers will peruse the present work with attention, they will at least perceive that the Gospel, which they esteem inconsistent with their plans for human happiness, far from being repugnant, contains the same scheme, and conducts us directly to the end proposed, by the same principles that they lay down; but by mild and beneficent ways, which, if generally adopted, would operate the felicity of all, without disturbing individuals in their peace or property.’

It is added, that a special reason for the translation of this work is, the just definition by Mr. Paulus, sec. 2. ch. 2. of the rights transferred to the society at large by the social compact; and of those which individuals specially reserve, and which cannot be violated without transforming power into usurpation.

This subject, the most important yet debated by society, certainly merits the deepest discussion; and the persecutions of governments will, as usual, only propagate the doctrine. Those who have a sincere regard for religion, will agree with Mr. Paulus, that the abuse of its dictates to the purposes of despotism and slavery, is attended with infinite danger; and is in fact to sacrifice Christianity, in order to secure the possessions of the church.

#### S W E D E N.

*Nova Acta Regiæ Societatis, &c.* This is the fifth volume of the Transactions of the Royal Society of Sciences at Stockholm. Its chief contents may perhaps be enumerated on a future occasion.

APP. VOL. XI. NEW ARR.

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PRUSSIA.

## P R U S S I A.

**Umständliche Nachricht, &c.** A particular Account of the Dedication of the Statue of Frederic II. erected at Stettin, on the 10th of October, 1793; Berlin, 4to. This pamphlet is written by the celebrated count Hertzberg; and is replete with his enthusiastic admiration of his late sovereign, and of Pomerania his native country.

A R E,



A R E V I E W  
OF  
P U B L I C A F F A I R S,  
FROM

MAY to SEPTEMBER, 1794.

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F R A N C E.

**H**OWEVER the philosopher may felicitate himself at the present moment upon living in an eventful age, when his most ardent curiosity can luxuriously regale upon revolutions, battles, and massacres; he will, when his imagination has amused and fatigued itself with conjectures upon the future conduct of society, envy the purer repast of those sages who will have the more refined pleasure of perusing, in elegant detail, these transactions, at a time when prejudice and the empire of passion, have subsided into candour and moderation. For, whatever may be the fate of those Gallic adventurers, who are now beating about in a tempestuous and unexplored political ocean, their safe arrival or their shipwreck must be momentous to posterity. Whether future ages and experience shall reject as chimerical or adopt as salutary their principles of polity, so subversive of the present established institutions of society, their transactions will still be important to ages yet to come. If rejected, such principles will be regarded in future merely as eruptions of the body politic, and our posterity will find an antidote for a disease, which baffles the skill of the best of modern political physicians. But if, on the contrary, the voyagers should arrive at the desired port, and explore new and flourishing political regions, then the perseverance they have evinced, and the difficulties they have encountered, will be, like those of the discoverers of the Transatlantic regions, marks of their future glory; and their disasters and misfortunes will be accurately placed, as rocks

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and shoals, in the chart of the new political world, for the safer passage of future navigators.

Whatever, in a word, may be the issue between the present contending powers, the modern history of France will soon become more interesting to society, and develop the secret springs of human action more accurately than the Greek or Roman story; the exertions of the French armies will be more important than the conquests of Alexander; and the histories of Robespierre, the Brissotines, and the Jacobins, more interesting than the factious efforts of the Gracchii, the conspiracy of Cataline, or the death of Cæsar by the hand of Brutus.

In reviewing the public affairs of this distracted nation, for each four months, we have found almost every period of our labour marked by a new epoch: at one time we had to recount the defection of Dumourier, and the Austrians repossessing themselves of the Netherlands; in the next period, we had to relate the surprising exertions of a nation, who possessed an elasticity of courage that rose under misfortune, to repel the invaders on every side. In reviewing the public affairs for the last four months, we have observed the motions of the allied armies from their powerful advances into France through Landrecy, till their depressing retreat through the Netherlands, driven by the soldiers of the Gallic Republic, who have now reconquered those provinces, and are making tremendous preparations to overthrow the power of the stadtholder in Holland, and fraternize with his subjects.

Since the period to which we allude, our political speculations have been assisted by the labours of the count de Montgaillard, a native of that country, who has professed to give to the public an accurate account of the state of France at this period.

From this interesting writer we learn, that though the national convention possess neither their confidence nor esteem, the French people will soon sanction the dispositions of order and property that it decrees; it has long reigned by terror; but will soon demand respect, if it can this year resist, or rather repel, the allies from the frontiers of France. Time gives strength to the assembly; and the assassinations which it sanctions, are already in name softened into acts of necessary rigour.

The power, the action, and the right of sovereignty, are concentrated, our author observes, in the committee of  
public



public safety. The thirty committees, amongst whom are divided the labours of the convention, have no share in the government; they are entirely ignorant of the measures which are exclusively taken by the committee of public safety; but the greatest activity every where reigns in the execution; laws are made, roads constructed, and canals dug, all at the same instant. The most abundant resources are lavished; public schools instituted, and the French language is carried to the foot of the Pyrenees, and amidst the heaths of the Lower Brittany. One sitting frequently produces thirty decrees upon objects the most remote; orders fifty millions to execute them, and erects every where scaffolds to maintain them. In finances, the convention is richer than united Europe. Seven ninths of the soil belong to the republic; and this continual pledge of paper credit, is now become inexhaustible, by the rapidity with which property is exchanged, and always to the advantage of the assembly. They have already conceived the project to nationalize the whole soil of France, to register the territory, like a public debt, in the *Grand Livre*; and to resume the property of the clergy and nobility, purchased, as they pretend, at a price much inferior to their actual value. About twenty millions sterling in gold and silver are deposited in the coffers of the national convention. The mint of Paris, to which was transported all the bullion of the suppressed provincial mints, contains about three millions of pounds sterling in metal; and daily additions are thrown in by deposits, collections, and penalties. The plunder of the churches produced near 1,350,000l. sterling, and through the whole extent of France there no longer remains a sacred vase, not even in the domestic chapels.

The military committee, directed by Carnot, La Fitte, d'Anissi, and others, draw the plans of attack and defence, combine their operations, and adapt their military tactics to the spirit of the revolution. From the memoirs, and from all the vestiges of the exploits, the zeal, and intelligence of the great generals, ministers, and statesmen, who adorned the old monarchy, these men have extracted the means of its annihilation. Eight hundred and fifty thousand effective men fight under the orders of the committee of public safety, and this number may be augmented. After the harvest and sowing season have assured the future subsistence of these new soldiers, when they are no longer useful at

home, we may fear that France, in the end of the campaign, (and appearances warrant the assertion,) will adopt the alarming measure of a war generally offensive.

When facts, favouring any cause, proceed from the pen of an enemy to it, we cannot suspect exaggeration; the subsequent successes of the French armies, confirm the above statement, which we must add, to the credit of the author, bears every other testimony of authenticity and honour.

On the 25th of April, the convention communicated the intelligence received from general Jourdain, That during his march to Arlon, he ordered general Vincent, commandant of the troops stationed between the Sarre and Moselle, to act offensively. The orders he received were executed with the utmost courage and ability; he attacked the enemy on the 14th, 15th, 16th, and 17th of April, constantly defeated them, and by his movements, greatly contributed to the victory of Arlon. The same day intelligence was read from Charbonie, commander in chief of the army of the Ardennes, that the defenders of the republic performed, on the twenty-third of April, all that men could achieve; both officers and soldiers exhibited, the general alleges, prodigies of valour. From six in the morning till night, the troops of the republic contended with their united enemies, from whom they gained a league and a half of ground, and took possession of the heights between Auffey and Valcourt. He adds, That after he had given the troops a little time for repose, he would pay the enemy another visit.

'In Italy,' said Barrere, 'every day is the herald of new victories, of which the capture of Oneglia was but the prelude. Ormea, on the Tanero, and the county of Nava, are in our possession.—Immense magazines, a superb manufactory of cloth, provisions, cannon, and ammunition, have fallen into our hands. The republicans (according to that system of delusion practised in the nations of Europe united against us) had been represented as monsters who pillaged without mercy, who violated women, and murdered children.—At their approach, therefore, the towns and villages were deserted—The good conduct, however, of the republican soldiers, soon put an end to these idle fears, and the inhabitants returned to their houses. They found, to their surprise, that their property had been respected, and  
not



not the smallest intention was evinced to interfere in their religious opinions.

‘Gezezio, three leagues from Ormea, was summoned to surrender, and the summons was immediately obeyed.’

In La Vendée, general Axo has followed the example of general Moulin; and in order to avoid falling into the hands of a party of rebels, put an end to his existence.

General Pichegru informed the convention, that on the twenty-sixth of April, there was a general attack on all the line from Dunes-libre to Givet, and, perhaps, even to the army of the Rhine; he was ignorant of what passed in the centre and the right. The left succeeded in their attack; and the Gallic army entered Courtray about five o'clock in the afternoon.

While the French were thus making inroads into the Netherlands, the allied armies were occupied with the siege of Landrecy, and with the flattering hopes of making their way to Paris. The besieged city was obliged to surrender to the combined forces, but from that time fortune frowned upon the exertions, even of an emperor, assisted by the talents and abilities of colonel Mack, the sons of the king of England, and by those of some of the greatest princes of Europe. The pageantry and show which accompanied him at his installation in the Netherlands, was soon turned into neglect, contempt, and rebellion. While the armies of the republic were thus engaged in the Netherlands, Robespierre at Paris was exerting himself to establish the decadary festivals. On the seventh of May, he made a speech for that purpose in the national convention. After having observed, ‘that the victories of the republic were celebrated throughout every quarter of the universe; that there was an entire revolution in the physical order, which could not fail to effect a similar revolution in the orders moral and political; that one half of the globe had already felt this change, which the other half would soon feel; and that the French nation had anticipated the rest of the world by two thousand years, insomuch that it might be considered as consisting of a new species of men;’ the orator proceeded to enlarge on the praises of republican morality, and a democratical government. He then attempted to justify the measures that had brought about the present regimen, and those by which it was accompanied. Eleven articles were decreed, the first of which was: ‘The

French nation acknowledges the existence of a Supreme Being, and the immortality of the soul. 2. It acknowledges that the worship worthy of the Supreme Being, consists in the practice of the duties of man. 3. It ranks among these duties, the detestation of treachery and tyranny, the punishment of traitors, the succouring of the wretched, respect for the weak, the defence of the oppressed, the doing to others all possible good, and the avoiding of injustice towards all their fellow creatures. By the fifth, these festivals are to be named either after the glorious events of the French revolution, those of the virtues the dearest and most useful to man, or the most conspicuous benefits of nature. By the eighth, the freedom of religious worship is maintained. By the eleventh, a festival is appointed to be celebrated on the eighth of June, in honour of the Supreme Being.

A few days after the convention had been amused by the oration of Robespierre, they received more substantial information, that the republican army in Italy had taken the city of Saorgio in Piedmont. 'The aspiring mountains,' said the reporter, in the exaggerated language of modern France, 'which nature has piled around the fortress, are formidable only to augment the still more aspiring glory of the French. The enemy were forced in all their positions; all the Piedmontese and Austrian camps fell into the hands of the French, with more than sixty pieces of cannon. The attack of the different posts was concerted in such a manner, as to be most fatal to the enemy.' The French had about sixty killed, and between two and three hundred wounded.

On the 16th of May, the French gained a considerable victory over the duke of York and the allies near Tournay. It appears that the attack on the part of the French, was after their usual manner *en masse*; it was general, and extended through all the points of the line of the combined armies, from the prince of Cobourg's position down to the duke of York's. This attack demonstrated the military skill of the French in a most forcible manner. 'What,' says a late writer, 'in the history of war, was ever more ingeniously planned, or more gallantly executed, than have been their operations in the beginning of this campaign? They, in fact, have totally disconcerted the meditated schemes of the greatest generals that Europe was able to produce.'

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The perilous situation of the duke of York in this battle, between Tournay and Lisle, is best described in his own words. 'Early on the morning of the seventeenth,' says he, 'the enemy attacked the post of Turcoing in great force, and I received an application from colonel Devay, who commanded there, to make a diversion in his favour; for which purpose I sent two battalions of Austrians, giving them express directions, if they should be pressed, to fall back upon me; but, by some mistake, instead of doing so, they joined colonel Devay. From this circumstance, an opening was left on my right, of which the enemy availed himself in the attack upon my corps, which took place soon after, and, by so doing, obliged me to employ the only battalion I had left, to secure a point, which was of the utmost consequence to us.'

'At this period a very considerable body of the enemy, which we have since learnt amounted to 15,000 men, appeared advancing from Lisle, whilst another corps, having forced its way through general Otto's position by Waterloo, attacked us in the rear. The few troops that remained with me, soon gave way before such superior numbers, nor was it in my power, with every effort I could use, assisted by those of the officers who were about me, to rally them. At that moment the advanced parties of the column from Lisle, shewed themselves also upon the road between Roubaix and Morveaux, and I found it impossible to succeed in the attempt which I made to join the brigade of guards.'

'Thus circumstanced, I turned my attention to join general Fox's brigade, but upon proceeding to Roubaix for that purpose, I found it in the possession of the enemy.'

'Thus completely cut off from every part of my corps, nothing remained for me to do, but to force my way to that of general Otto, and to concert measures with him to free my own troops.'

'This I effected accompanied by a few dragoons of the sixteenth regiment, with great difficulty.'

In this engagement, more than a thousand of the British forces were killed and wounded.

This success of the republicans was soon followed by a considerable defeat, though soon retrieved by future victories.

General count Kaunitz, on the twenty-fourth of May, attacked the French army which had passed the Sambre,

and had taken a position with its left by Roucroy, while its right extended to Fontaine l'Eveque, and completely defeated them, and obliged them to retreat in great confusion over the river. The French lost several pieces of cannon, and upwards of a thousand men. The French army had crossed the Sambre two days before, and consisted of between fifteen and twenty thousand men. Their object was to take Mons, to turn the rear of the allied army, opposed to Pichegru, and, perhaps, to march to Brussels.

About the same period, the French made an inroad into the duchy of Luxembourg, with an army of forty thousand men, and took possession of Arlon, which obliged general Beaulieu (who had moved forward and taken the town of Bouillon by storm) to retire and to fall back on Marche, in order to cover Namur.

General Jourdain also, about the middle of May, attacked the allies vigorously near Dinant, and forced them to retreat with considerable loss.

On the twenty-eighth of June, the republican army on the Sambre gained a signal victory in the plains of Fleurus, already renowned by French valour: the allies were routed after a continual engagement of twelve hours.

The prince of Cobourg says, on this occasion, 'that, though there was great reason to suspect that Charleroi was already in the hands of the French, yet as no certain intelligence could possibly be procured, the attack, which had been determined upon for its relief, became necessary, to prevent the fate of so important a place as Charleroi being left to chance.

' In consequence, the army marched on the twenty-fifth in five columns, and early in the morning of the twenty-sixth, attacked the enemy's entrenched position between Lambusart, Espines, and Gosselies.

' The attack, which was executed with great resolution, was every where successful. In the evening, the left wing arrived at the principal heights on this side the Sambre.

' The ground here forms a gentle declivity, which the enemy had fortified by a very extensive line of redoubts, to which they had brought an immense number of cannon. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the left wing attempted to force the enemy's position with fixed bayonets. But the surrender of Charleroi, which took place on the evening of the twenty-fifth, having enabled the French to reinforce them-



themselves with the besieging army, and thus to bring the greatest part of their forces against our left wing; this advantage, added to those of their situation, and of the quantity of artillery, enabled them to repulse our attack.

In consequence of this defeat, the prince of Cobourg was obliged to retreat as far as Marbais, to cover the country as far as possible, and to protect Namur.

About this time the northern army of the republic made extensive inroads into maritime Flanders.

According to the duke of York's account from Renaix, on the twenty-fourth of June, when colonel Craig set out on his journey to England, he proceeded to Oudenarde, where he learnt the unfortunate news, that the French had obliged general Clairfayt to retire in some confusion to Ghent; and that the communication between that place and Oudenarde, unless by a great detour, was entirely cut off. This success of the republicans, by forcing general Clairfayt to retire, and bringing themselves nearer to the banks of the Scheldt, rendered the duke of York's position before Tournay, which, since the departure of the prince of Cobourg, had always been hazardous, no longer tenable; he therefore quitted it, leaving only a small garrison in the town, and marched with all the British and part of the Hessian troops, to Renaix, in order to be in readiness to support Oudenarde, which was menaced and actually summoned.

On the 18th of June, the garrison of Ypres surrendered themselves prisoners of war, and were sent into France. The town presented the most ruined appearance. The town-house was almost levelled with the ground. The cathedral, and several other churches and convents, shared the same fate. After the French had taken possession of the town, they assembled the inhabitants in the square, and the French general addressing them in a speech, promised that their persons and property should receive protection, if they forbore from all attempts to disturb the republican form of government, which the French had adopted.

During the siege, several sorties were made, and with great success. The emigrants fought with incredible valour, conscious of their doom, should they fall into the hands of their enraged countrymen.

Soon after these disasters of the allied army, Ostend fell into the hands of the French, and, to use the inflated style of

of Barrere, 'the committee of public welfare could hardly follow the rapid march of their triumphant armies. Victory assumed the boldest flight of fame. Whilst the armies of the Sambre and the Meuse were reconquering the department of Jemappe, the left wing of the northern army took the town and port of Ostend. The rulers in France ordered their armies not to allow breathing time to the British and imperial banditti, and their orders have been strictly obeyed. With those hords, terror and flight are now the order of the day. The French armies can scarcely overtake the imperial eagle in his flight; and all Belgium has neither extent nor strong holds enough to protect, or rather to hide, the retreat of the allies.'

However unpleasant the vaunting style of a conqueror may be, yet when we revert to the melancholy state of France, when surrounded by powerful, numerous, disciplined, and enraged armies, who threatened her with destruction in all the complicated forms, which fire, sword, and famine were capable of inflicting, our wonder or disgust at some intemperate exultation upon their deliverance, must meet with some abatement.

So confident, however, were the French of success at the beginning of the campaign, that, according to an official statement in the national convention, the ground, on which stood the prince of Cobourg's camp, had sold at a much higher rate than the valuation; this, with some degree of propriety, was suspected to be a gasconade of the demagogues who govern that nation; but the adventurous purchaser of that tract of land had, perhaps, weighed with more coolness and deliberation, the various probabilities which lay in the opposite paths of subjection or triumph to his country, than the ministers of the allied powers.

According to commissary Hentz, the French armies of the Rhine and the Moselle had, on the 15th of July, been engaged with their enemies, and had been every where successful. The allies had fallen back on all points for twenty leagues; Spires and Kirweiller were again occupied by republican troops; and their enemies had lost eighteen pieces of artillery, 1300 men killed, and double that number wounded.

'The coalesced powers,' exclaimed Barrere, 'wished to starve France, and we have now in our possession the two  
grana-



granaries of the empire. The harvests of Belgium and the Palatinate shall now be transported into the interior of the republic.

The intelligence of the capture of Mechlin and Louvain, was announced to the national convention on the 19th of July. The passage of the canal before Mechlin was difficult; general Proteau was killed, and general Salme slightly wounded. The troops behaved with their accustomed bravery, and several crossed the canal by swimming. The advanced guard of general Klebr's army attacked Louvain, and gained possession of it, notwithstanding the vigorous defence made by the enemy. General Lefevre drove the enemy to Tirlemont with considerable loss.

The Austrian colours taken at Landrecy, and the keys of the city of Namur, were presented together to the national convention on the 20th of July.

After general Jourdain had completely invested Namur, he had scarcely begun to bombard it, when the garrison evacuated the town and citadel, leaving only 200 men who surrendered the place immediately. The French found forty pieces of cannon, and a great quantity of military stores.

After these events, the republican army of the north, with the utmost rapidity, passed on to Brussels and Antwerp, and, in a short space of time, took possession of all the Netherlands, with a most plentiful harvest on the ground. They arrived on the frontiers of Holland, took the island of Cadland, and invested Sluys. But upon the civil commotions arising in Paris, at those places they appear to have made a stand.

On the side of Spain, the successes of the French have been great, and, in fact, tremendous to the Spanish monarchy. Fontarabia, the town and port of St. Sebastian, with immense stores and shipping, have fallen into their possession. The rapid strides they are taking into that country, announce even the monarch of Spain to be in a perilous situation, as some of the towns are said to have opened their gates to the enemy with the exclamation of *Vive la Republique!*

The late important dissensions among the leaders of this new republic, next demand our attention.

In the month of May, the rigid and sanguinary republicans

cans of Paris brought madame Elizabeth, sister to the late king, to trial and to the guillotine. However improper they might consider her as an instructor or companion to the two orphans in the Temple, the rooted prejudices of her education, and even her want of power, and political insignificance, should have procured her the liberty of wearing out her own existence in religious silence and inactivity.

One question and one answer, contained the whole trial of this unfortunate princess.

Q. What is your quality.

A. Aunt to the king.

Immediately on this reply, the tribunal condemned the prisoner to death, 'as guilty of a conspiracy against the republic.' In a few hours afterwards, she was brought to the place of execution, and met her fate with that fortitude, which religion only can legitimately inspire.

On the 24th of May, the convention were informed that an attempt was made to assassinate Collot d'Herbois, a member of the committee of public safety, as he was walking in the street. The assassin's name was Ameral, who, after having discharged a pistol at Collot d'Herbois, immediately returned to his lodgings, which he fortified in the best manner he was able. Collot instantly requested a friend, with whom he was walking (Geoffroi) to call a municipal officer, while he pursued Ameral to his lodgings. Ameral having loaded several pistols, threatened instant death to whoever should attempt to enter his apartments; Collot, however, endeavoured to break open the door; but his companion, Geoffroi, prevented him, and exclaimed, 'No, I command you, in the name of the people, to remain here. I will put this monster under the axe of the law, or perish in the attempt.—To exterminate such men, is to practise justice and virtue.' Geoffroi immediately broke open the door, rushed upon Ameral, disarmed and secured him.

Upon instituting an inquiry into the situation and profession of Ameral, it was found that he had formerly been in the service of Bertin; that on the 10th of August, 1792, he was at the Thuilleries; and that during the duke of Brunswick's invasion of the French territories, he had been dismissed from the battalion in which he had served.

On the 23d of May, about nine o'clock at night, a female, of twenty years of age, went to the house of the citizen, Duplai,



Duplai, where Robespierre resided, and desired to speak to him—Duplai informing her that he was not at home, she made use of these words: 'It is very astonishing that, as he is a public functionary, he is not at home. Possessing such a situation as he does, he ought to be always ready to see those who have business with him.'

The manner in which she uttered these words, having infused some suspicion into the mind of Duplai, he stopped and carried her before the committee of general safety. On the way thither she exclaimed, 'that during the old government, the king was accessible at all times, and that she would spill every drop of blood in her body, to restore the ancient government, and to have a king again upon the throne.'

Being introduced to the members of the committee of general safety, she said that her name was Aimee Cecile Regnault, that she was twenty years old, and was the daughter of a stationer, who lived in the street called La Lanterne, in the section of La Cité. She was ordered to prison, and afterwards executed as well as Ameral.

But we have more important circumstances to relate respecting Robespierre, than the secret designs of a private assassin. That Robespierre was an enthusiast, and even a tyrant in the cause in which he had engaged, his violence towards all, who thought differently from himself, sufficiently evince. We dare not, however, join his opponents in pronouncing him a traitor; because an enthusiast and a traitor to the same cause, are incompatible and inconsistent.

It appears that, for some time, a degree of disunion had prevailed in the committee of public safety, but the popularity and power of Robespierre was such, that no open opposition appeared to his measures. An altercation had indeed taken place between him and Bourdon De l'Oise in the convention, and there were few persons who did not expect that it would have proved fatal to the latter. In the mean time, however, a secret combination was formed, at the head of which were Billaud Varennes, Collot D'Herbois, Barrere, and almost all the men of influence and weight in the committee and the convention; and it was destined to overwhelm in ruin this extraordinary demagogue and his adherents.

Barrere in the convention, the 27th of July, addressed the assembly to the following effect: 'Since the 10th of June,  
I have

I have never dared to behold that cunning man, who has had the art to wear so many different masks; and who, when he has not been able to save his creatures, has made no scruple to turn against them, and send them to the guillotine. On the 10th of June, the tyrant (for that is the name I must give him) moved a resolution for establishing a revolutionary tribunal. He framed it himself, and Couthon proposed it, without having even read it; and yet he is the man who complains of patriots being oppressed—he who imprisoned the revolutionary committee, composed of the purest patriots in Paris; he, who in order to overwhelm all who thwarted his views, instituted a general police. He has endeavoured to oppress me particularly, because I made a report which was not agreeable to his views.—If we were to credit the tyrant, he is the only true defender of liberty; modest man!

Tallien rose and said it was in his speech, which he made in the club of the Jacobins, that he looked for weapons to assail the demagogue, whose virtue and patriotism have been so much extolled, but who was not to be found on the 10th of August, till three whole days after the revolution; this man, who abandoned his post in the committee of public safety for four decades. And when was it he did so? at the time when the situation of the army of the north, afforded cause for the utmost uneasiness; it was then he abandoned his post. The most shocking barbarities, he added, have been committed during the period that Robespierre has had the principal charge of the general police.

Robespierre here attempted to interrupt Tallien, but was silenced by the general clamour.

Louchet, moved the decree of arrest against him, and

Freron exclaimed, 'this day will be ever memorable in the annals of liberty and our country.' 'And so it will,' replied Robespierre, 'for villains are triumphant.'

A decree of arrest against the two Robespierres, Couthon, St. Just, and Le Bas, was unanimously passed.

The complete destruction of Robespierre's power, was an event which even his most violent enemies scarcely expected so suddenly. Prior to the 27th of July, it was known in Paris that there was a party in the convention adverse to Robespierre and his adherents; but it was not supposed that this opposition would be so speedy and so serious.



It was even doubted after the convention had passed the decree of arrest, whether the destruction of Robespierre's power would be completed. The president commanded an usher (Huissier) to take him into custody. The usher, however, seemed afraid to obey the command, and the president was under the necessity of repeating it several times before it was executed. At length Robespierre made a sign of obedience, and followed the usher, who conducted him to the Luxembourg. The police officer refusing to receive him, he was carried to the Hotel de Ville. In the mean time Hanriot, the commandant of the national guard, and a creature of Robespierre, who had been taken into custody but escaped, assembled his adherents.—The Jacobin society, and the municipality, declared themselves in a state of insurrection; the national agent made a speech, in which he endeavoured to induce the people to revolt against the convention. The tocsin was rung—the friends of Robespierre had assembled near the Hotel de Ville to defend him, and several pieces of artillery were every moment expected.

In the mean time the convention addressed the sections, and deputed seven members to lead them against the revolters. The national guard, at the same time, declared in favour of the convention, and the sections followed their example.

The Hotel de Ville was immediately attacked, and after a short but sharp contest, in which Robespierre and Couthon endeavoured with desperate valour to defend themselves, and were both wounded, the revolters were overpowered, and, with their adherents, were carried before the revolutionary tribunal. Their persons being identified, which was all that was necessary, as they had been previously outlawed, they were sentenced to die within twenty-four hours, and this sentence was carried into execution at eight o'clock on the evening of the 28th. In their last moments they behaved with great fortitude, and Robespierre died with the same firmness with which he had lived. With him, his brother, and his colleagues St. Just, Le Bas, and Couthon, died twelve members of the commune of Paris, who had been previously outlawed.

Never was so great a concourse of people assembled as on this occasion, and the transports painted on every face, were inexpressibly great. In all the streets through which the

criminals passed, and in the square of the revolution, unanimous cries of *Abas les Tyrans ! Vive la Republique ! Vive la Convention !* were heard. The eyes of the spectators were particularly fixed on Robespierre, Couthon, and Hanriot, whose faces were covered with blood from the wounds they had received, previously to their arrest. During the march from the palace of justice to the scaffold, the people expressed their horror of the cruelties they had perpetrated, in the most decided manner.

In whatever point of view we consider these events, they afford matter of much speculation. Respecting Robespierre's guilt, it may admit of some doubt whether that man could be a traitor, who for three successive years possessed the unbounded confidence of the people ; whose energy contributed so much to the defence of the republic ; whose consistency from the first opening of the revolution was so conspicuous ; and, who almost to the moment of his death, was styled the incorruptible patriot of France. The charges against Robespierre and his adherents, may be reduced to two. 1st. That they wished to usurp a tyrannical power in France.

Secondly, That they had governed hitherto by a cruel and sanguinary system.

Respecting the first charge, it is difficult to conceive that any sensible man in France would ever think of governing it as dictator. Robespierre had certainly penetration enough to see that France would not again speedily receive a master. Barrere has compared him to Sylla ; others have drawn a parallel between Robespierre, Couthon, St. Just, and the triumvirs of ancient Rome. Such allusions may excite the passions of an assembly, or embellish an oration, but they do not decide a fact.

What were the proofs of Robespierre's desire to become dictator ? Accounts of speeches and conversations related by different members of the assembly : yet none of these establish the point.

The other charge is, indeed, too well founded—that Robespierre governed by a system of cruelty and severity, there are many dreadful facts to prove ; but these violences might possibly arise more from a harsh and unfeeling disposition, and an ardour and enthusiasm in the cause he had embraced, than from any desire to become the dictator of France.

As to the influence which the fall of Robespierre's party may



may have on the affairs of the republic, we think it will induce the present party to act a more moderate part; because they have derived their success from the general disapprobation in which the severity of Robespierre's party was held by the people.

That it will diminish the energy of the revolutionary government, or the activity of their armies, the observations of the count de Montgaillard, and of those who are best acquainted with the state of France, leave us little room to hope. Should, however, any degree of moderation and liberality manifest itself among the new rulers, let us flatter ourselves that it will have a proper effect upon the powers of Europe, and that it may serve as a basis for accommodation, and for the restoration of peace to a distracted world.

### G R E A T   B R I T A I N .

We concluded our last Review of the Public Affairs of Great Britain by the vote of parliament for two millions and a half, to enable his majesty to fulfil his late engagements with the king of Prussia. The most ardent hopes of a successful campaign were now formed by the ministers, from the punctuality with which they presumed the Prussian monarch would fulfil his treaty; the ardour which the presence of the emperor would infuse into the allied armies; and from the excellence of the plans suggested by the acknowledged abilities of colonel Mack. Since that period we have had the mortification to see, and have now the melancholy task to relate, the dispersion of these hopes.

To carry into execution those vast plans, which the collected military and political talents of all the combined courts of Europe had formed, it was found necessary to hasten the emigrant corps bill through the British parliament. The ministers strenuously defended the principles of that bill, and appeared surprised that any objections should be offered to it, considering it, as they did, as strictly constitutional in its nature, and humane in its intention.

The opposition argued with some force against the injustice, the impolicy, and the inhumanity of the bill. It was unjust, as it exposed those emigrants to a danger, which, from the operation of the Alien Bill, they could not, if ministers chose to enforce it, avoid. Impolitic, as there was more probability of their adopting the interest of France than of the allies, when the issue was doubtful: and inhuman, as it was a certainty they would

be massacred if taken in the field. Nor was there, it was observed, any great encouragement, from the conduct of these emigrants, to trust them too far: Had they not deserted their king in the hour of distress? these persons might therefore find some interest to induce them to betray us, and consequently, the project was dangerous and absurd.

The idea that the mass of the people of France would be ready to return to the feudal and tyrannical system of the old government, and repair to the standard of the emigrants, was treated as ridiculous; and yet, without that junction, nothing could be effected under this bill; for we had nothing here but the skeletons of regiments, formed of officers.

On Monday the twelfth of May, Mr. Dundas brought down a message from his majesty, purporting that, having received information that seditious practices had lately been carried on by certain societies in London, in correspondence with societies in different parts of the country, and avowedly directed to the object of assembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament — he had therefore given directions for seizing the books and papers of the said societies in London, which had been seized accordingly—that his majesty had also given orders for laying them before the house of commons, and recommended to them to consider the same. At the same time a shoemaker, of the name of Hardy, secretary of the London Corresponding Society, and Mr. Adams, secretary of the Society for Constitutional Information, were taken into custody, underwent several examinations before the privy council, and were committed to the Tower for high treason. The imprisonment of Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr. Thelwall, and Mr. Joyce, the private secretary of earl Stanhope, immediately followed, in consequence of the tremendous discoveries contained in the papers of these societies. The papers taken were, also, made the foundation of an act of parliament for suspending the habeas corpus act; they were previously referred to a secret committee, who made a long report of their contents to the house. The public found, in the parliamentary report of these papers, a repetition of what they had before seen in almost every newspaper, notices for meetings of the respective societies, their transactions, resolutions, and toasts, which were generally ordered to be published by the societies themselves. The letters from individuals,



dividuals, and distant members of the societies to the secretaries of those respective societies, and the correspondence between one society and another, made a considerable part of the report of the secret committee. But the most important discovery was, that in the possession of individuals, connected with these societies (who were supposed to consist of at least *twenty thousand persons*) there were found not fewer than *eighteen stand of arms*!

The bill for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act was introduced into the house by the minister, upon reading the report of the secret committee; and, in consequence of his motion, leave was given 'to bring in a bill to empower his majesty to secure and detain such persons as his majesty shall *suspect* are conspiring against his person and government.'

The opposition side of the house contended, that they saw nothing in the report that justified so extraordinary and so alarming a measure as the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, which was justly considered as the palladium of English liberty; if, however, leave to bring in the bill was given, it would be absolutely necessary to move two clauses—the one, that while the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act continued, the house should continue to sit; and the other, that an account should be rendered by the executive government, to that house, of all persons apprehended and confined under this bill, otherwise it would give to ministers the power of throwing into prison, and detaining, any person whom they might incline to distress, and that upon any supposed treason, or the slightest pretext. With regard to the report, it certainly contained nothing, but what had been publicly known long before. As to the principal argument of the ministerial party, which went to prove the illegality of conventions, it was answered by the other side, that there had been many conventions in this country, Scotland, and Ireland, for different purposes, and none of them had ever been thought illegal. Mr. Pitt, and the duke of Richmond themselves had belonged to some of them, for the express purpose also of parliamentary reform. With regard to the discretion of those who were to be entrusted with the extraordinary power which the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act would put into the hands of the executive government, it was contended that no member, even of that house, would be safe from the false pretences, suspicions,

suspicious, and malice of their opponents; for they might proceed upon the most frivolous suspicions. It was urged that, if this bill passed, it would be impossible to satisfy the public, that many of those, who brought out the seditious and improper publications, were not suborned, and employed for the very purpose of exciting and carrying on this system of alarm and pretended danger. It was asserted, by one of the opposition members, 'that if it was attempted to carry this bill through both houses of parliament with any extraordinary expedition or precipitation, he would not hesitate to say, that any minister who should, under such circumstances, advise his majesty to pass it, deserved to lose his head.'

Notwithstanding these reasons, the bill passed into a law, the 23d of May, by which, persons imprisoned for high treason, &c. may be detained, without bail or mainprize, until the first of February, 1795.

The differences which had arisen between this country and America came next under the consideration of parliament.

On the 26th of May, the marquis of Lansdowne called the attention of their lordships to the relation in which we stood at this moment with the United States of America. He went over, rapidly, all the grounds of complaint which the Americans had to prefer, and some of them, he feared, with much justice. The barrier posts had never been delivered up, and this great cause of contention, which had rankled in the breasts of the Americans, now made the first article of their charge. It was impossible to deny, that, in this instance, our conduct had neither manifested a disposition to cultivate the friendship of the Americans, nor any degree of extended and magnanimous policy. The Americans had their suspicions too, that we had not acted either with openness, or even consistently with the rights of nations, in the part which we had taken between the courts of Portugal and Algiers. They suspected that the treaty was made with no kind intention towards them. It was concealed for six weeks after it was made, until the Algerine cruisers could be let loose upon their trade. They had their suspicions that this secrecy was suggested by the court of London. The orders of the 6th of June and the 6th of November had further provoked the Americans, and neither of these orders could be justified by the rights of nations. The second was so avowedly hostile to all the laws



laws of civilized nations, as well as to true policy, that ministers had found themselves in the situation incident to all weak and rash men—they had been forced to retract it. Another provocation alleged by the Americans against the British nation, was her governors, and their deputies, exciting the Indians to commit depredations upon the territories of the republic. A paper was then read, called the Reply of Lord Dorchester to the Indians of the Seven Villages of Lower Canada, as deputies from all the nations who were assembled at the general council, held at the Miami, in the year 1793.

In one of the clauses of this reply, his lordship says, speaking of a boundary line, 'that from the manner in which the people of the states push on, and act, and talk on this side, and from what I learn of their conduct towards the sea, I shall not be surpris'd if *we are at war with them in the course of the present year*; and if we are, a line must then be drawn by the warriors.'

After this paper, and the seizure of their ships, was it surprising that the Americans had laid an embargo on shipping in their ports for thirty days? A motion for the production of copies of instructions sent to lord Dorchester, relative to this country and America, was negatived by 69 to 9.

On the 30th of May, the great question of the war was brought under the consideration of the upper house by the duke of Bedford.

His grace entered into an account of the several stages of the war in which we were engaged, and developed the views which had been entertained concerning it, by the government and the legislature; the different aspects which it had assumed at different times; and lastly, he pointed out the utter impossibility there was at this moment of drawing any specific conclusion from the conduct of ministers, of what their real intentions in the war were, or to limit the calamity to any object, the attainment of which would satisfy their wishes. In doing this, he examined the situation of affairs both at home and abroad, and inquired, whether they entertained any well grounded hopes that the system which they were pursuing, and the means they had taken to accomplish it, were likely to produce any beneficial object whatever to this country?

The declaration that had been made by Lord Hood to the  
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people of Toulon, was the first instance in which we had expressed any design or wish to interfere in the internal government of France. Lord Hood formally accepted of the declaration of the people of Toulon, to adopt a monarchical government, such as it was originally formed by the constituent assembly, and he declared to the people of the south of France, that he should protect those who professed these sentiments, and pledged the faith of the government of England, to the honest and unequivocal maintenance of the object of their declaration. The invitation which he gave to the people of the south of France, to declare themselves, was accepted, the people did repair to the standard which he had erected, and the noble lord, on the 28th of August, solemnly accepted of their declaration; and thus a specific ground and object of the war was held out to the people of France, and the faith of Great Britain was pledged to that people for this clear and specific object. By the memorial presented to the states-general, on the 25th of January 1793, however, the persons who framed the constitution, which we pledged ourselves by lord Hood's declaration to assist in re-establishing, were described as 'miscreants assuming the name of philosophers,' and that constitution was reviled as 'the offspring of vanity and licentiousness.'

As to the cruelties exercised in France, had not the allied powers urged them on to these savage acts? Had they not pressed them on from murder to murder, goaded, hunted, set upon like beasts of prey, and rendered desperate in the toils? Had not the courts of Europe taught the French, that nothing but their extermination would satisfy them? Had they not made a solemn declaration against their lives; pronounced that nothing but their blood could give security to Europe, and having thus demanded, in the face of France, the lives of their leaders, the men who had given to them, however they might at present exercise it, the advantages of liberty, could it be expected that they would deliver up their leaders, or stand by and see them torn from their sides?

'My lords,' continued his grace, 'let us not deceive ourselves; let us not be made the dupes of our own declamation; before we bring these people to the tribunal of justice, let us be sure that our own hearts are free from the crimes that we affect to abhor; let us be sure that we have  
not



not created the fury which has produced these horrors ; and let us coolly and deliberately inquire, as friends of that humanity which is so incessantly our theme, if we should not better promote the object of restoring France to the happiness of order, tranquillity, and government ; if, instead of rendering its leaders furious and desperate, we were to make a specific declaration that we had no desire of interfering in their domestic concerns, and did not presume to arrogate to ourselves the right to dictate what should be their government, or who should be their governors.'

The ministerial side of the house went over their old ground of invective against the French, pleaded the necessity of the war, and negatived, by their numbers, the resolutions moved by the noble duke, which were founded either upon facts recorded on the journals of that house, or upon public papers which had been laid on their table.

The same day Mr. Fox brought forward the same business in the house of commons ; he reprobated, in strong terms, the continuation of the war and the conduct of ministers ; he pointed out the rashness of entering into the war, and carrying it on without any fixed object or end. At one time, the design of the war was to protect Holland, at another, to restore Louis XVII. to the crown of France ; at another, to put a stop to the dreadful anarchy now raging there, by giving them some fixed form of government.

Speaking of the king of Prussia, he observed that we had entered into a treaty with that monarch, by which neither party was to have laid down arms, but by consent of the other. From this engagement he escaped by a loop-hole ; for as none of his dominions were within reach of the enemy, he had only to withdraw his troops from the scene of action, and tell us that he had not made peace with France. Though the last campaign was extolled by ministers as successful, the Prussian monarch discovered that such victories would cost him something ! This was the unlooked for circumstance that would not permit him to continue the war. Had the public been told in July 1793, that the treaty was binding upon him only for the remainder of the campaign, they would have seen it in a different point of view.

Mr. Fox concluded with reading similar resolutions to those of the duke of Bedford ; upon which the previous question was carried by a great majority.

About this period, the public received the exhilarating

intelligence of a victory gained by admiral lord Howe, dated Queen Charlotte at sea, June 2d, 1794.

On the morning of the 28th of May, the enemy was discovered by lord Howe far to windward, and was engaged with him in a partial action that evening and the next day.

The weather-gage having been obtained, in the progress of the last mentioned day by the English fleet, and being in a situation for bringing the enemy to close action, on the first of June the ships bore up together for that purpose, between seven and eight o'clock in the morning.

The French, their force consisting of twenty-six ships of the line, opposed to the British fleet of twenty-five (the Audacious having parted company with the sternmost ship of the enemy's line, captured in the night of the twenty-eighth) waited for the action, and sustained the attack with their customary resolution.

In less than an hour after, the close action commenced in the centre; the French admiral, engaged by the Queen Charlotte, after a severe conflict bore off, and was followed by most of the ships of his van in condition to carry sail after him, leaving with the English several of his ships crippled or totally dismasted, exclusive of one sunk in the engagement.

At this time many of the English ships were also so injured by the action, that they were not able to prevent two or three ships of the enemy, in a disabled state, from getting away under a sprit-sail. Seven remained in possession of the English, one of which sunk before adequate assistance could be given to her crew.

All agree that the enemy fought with a courage bordering on rashness; but the superiority of the British naval skill, and the excellent state of their ships, turned the fortune of the day in their favour.

The rejoicings on this occasion were great and general; but in the capital they were blended with those irregularities and disorders, so incident to a London mob; the peaceful inhabitants were awaked in the dead of night, by the barbarous clamour of those who were ready to commit every excess, to fill up the measure of their savage rejoicings; and several windows were broken, before the affrighted inmates had time to illuminate them. In their riotous nocturnal perambulations through the streets, the mob assailed

the



the houses of several persons, supposed to think differently on politics from the present men in power, and it was asserted that bullets were fired amidst the squibs and crackers, at the houses of marked individuals. The house of earl Stanhope, though previously illuminated, suffered much, and was several times on fire by illuminated candles being beaten from the windows among the furniture. In an advertisement published by his lordship, it was asserted that gentlemen had been seen in coaches distributing money and encouraging the mob in these outrages. To the scandal of the police, these scenes of outrage and riot were permitted and even encouraged for three successive nights.

A few days before the prorogation of parliament, the minister had the mortification to find, that though he had punctually remitted the money from the British treasury for the use of the king of Prussia, according to treaty, the troops had not moved in the great cause in which he had engaged them; but that his Prussian majesty thought it more to his interest, to order them for the protection of his newly acquired dominions in Poland.

The opposition side of the house did not omit the opportunity of reminding administration of their predictions relative to the conduct of this monarch, and embarrassed the minister by importunate interrogatories. What services, they asked, had the king of Prussia rendered this country since he was subsidized? Had he marched any troops to co-operate with ours? And if he had, what did their number amount to? What had they done? And where were they now stationed? What articles of this or the former treaty had the king of Prussia fulfilled? Had he fulfilled any except one—the receiving of our money? These were points, they added, into which the house of commons were bound to inquire before they separated, and they could not face their constituents without knowing something upon these topics. If the minister should say that he did not imagine the king of Prussia would have acted as he has done; the answer was, that he was warned of it in the course of the debates on the granting of the subsidy; and he might have been taught to expect it; from past experience of the conduct of that monarch. If, on the contrary, the minister said that the misfortunes of the campaign were not owing to the neglect of the king of Prussia, or to the insincerity of the emperor, or any of the allies, but to the prodigious

digious numbers of the French, as an *armed nation*—there again the answer was plain; he knew the French to have been an armed nation, for so they had been most emphatically termed by himself.

Mr. Pitt was, however, on the 11th of July, relieved from these embarrassments by the prorogation of parliament.

The same day, in the house of lords, the duke of Norfolk was prevented from making a promised motion, by the lord chancellor absenting himself till too late an hour.

Lord Lauderdale, on this occasion, moved 'that this house do appoint a speaker, and proceed immediately to business.' No proceeding took place in consequence of this motion, and his majesty arriving soon after, the parliament was prorogued.

About this time the duke of Portland was introduced into administration.

His grace, ten years ago, declared, in the face of the whole people, his opinion of Mr. Pitt: that he had insulted the house of commons in the grossest manner, and that he never could act in concert with him until he had, by a temporary dereliction of office, acknowledged the offence against the constitution, of which he had been guilty. Mr. Pitt refused to resign, and his grace refused to act with him. Time has removed those objections, and the duke (as well as the earls Spencer, and Fitzwilliam, Mr. Wyndham, and others, who called themselves the Whig party) has condescended to accept an office in subordination to that minister, whom a few years ago he affected to treat with contempt.

### WEST INDIES.

The cheering prospect which this quarter wore at the beginning of the campaign, has lately been clouded; the sickness raging among the British troops, the treachery of some French royalists, and the exertions of the republicans, have materially lessened the great expectations the English nation had entertained, from the capture of the French islands.

According to official letters from sir Charles Grey, dated Guadaloupe, July 8th, 1794, we learn, that a French squadron having landed some troops, the British forces commanded by captain Robertson, endeavoured, on the 2d of July, to gain possession of Point a-Petre, where the French were posted;  
but



but being misled by their guides, the troops entered the town at the part where they were most exposed to the enemies cannon and small arms, and where it was not possible to scale the walls of the fort; in consequence of which they suffered considerably from round and grape shot, together with small arms fired from the houses, &c. and a retreat became unavoidable. Sir Charles soon after learnt that the French had retaken Grande Terre.

### A M E R I C A.

On the 26th of March, 1794, congress resolved that an embargo be laid on all ships and vessels in the ports of the United States, whether then cleared out or not, bound to any foreign port or place, for the term of thirty-days.

The congress soon after made an act to empower the president of the United States, to lay a further embargo upon shipping or not, during their recess, as exigencies might require.

On the 16th of April, general Washington informed the senate, that the communications which he had received from the American minister in London, contained a serious aspect of affairs between the United States and Great Britain. He therefore had thought proper to nominate Mr. John Jay, as envoy extraordinary of the United States to his Britannic majesty. 'Going,' says the president, 'immediately from the United States, such an envoy will carry with him a full knowledge of the existing temper and sensibility of our country; and will thus be able to vindicate our rights with firmness, and to cultivate peace with sincerity.'

On the 21st of May, 1794, general Washington laid before the senate and the house of representatives, some private information which he had received, that some encroachments were about to be made upon the American territory, by an officer and party of the British troops; he also caused a representation to be made to the same effect to the British minister.

### G E R M A N Y.

The memorials and exhortations of the emperor to the petty princes of Germany, to arm their subjects against the common enemy, have hitherto been ineffectual; too poor to hire their peasants to march with the regular troops of the empire, and too timid to put arms in their hands to enable them

them to protect their own property, every plan for exciting the people of Germany to rise in a mass, appears to be altogether nugatory and impracticable.

The imperial journey through the Netherlands, though followed by misfortune, was instructive to the august traveller. His good sense enabled him to distinguish between outward pageantry and real intention.

In his address to the Netherlands, dated Tournay, 26th of May, 1794, he observes, that the mass of the enemy which has precipitated itself on Belgium, rendering the danger more pressing, it became more necessary for the inhabitants to employ all the means in their power to check the operation of that immense and formidable body, by all the force which it was possible to collect and combine.

Hitherto the hereditary states of the empire have furnished the major part of the troops, which have protected the Belgic provinces, so interested in the success of the war, which might unhappily be attended with their annihilation and total ruin, unless they would agree to furnish men to assist in defence of those provinces.

He demanded forces to defend their own country; while they hesitated to grant what might seem to their sovereign so reasonable a request. Disgusted at this disappointment, he returned with his military Mentor, colonel Mack, to Vienna; whence he has lately issued a public memorial to the several states of the empire, exhorting them to contribute largely in men and money, towards the defence of the old state of things against Gallic innovation. As a proof of his losses and the existing danger, he says, that two thirds of the empire might be considered as already conquered, and the enemy was every where triumphant.

## P O L A N D.

This unfortunate country is still contending for her liberties, without a single ally either to compassionate or assist her, against the two rapacious powers of Prussia and Russia.

In May last, the levying of men was carried on with such rapidity, that it was then supposed the Polish patriots would soon amount to 100,000 men in arms.

The bishop of Livonia, M. de Kossakowski, has been hanged at Warsaw, before the church of the Bernardins.

The



The king of Prussia arrived about the same time at Pozen, and was to take the field with general Faurat on the 28th of May.

On the 15th of June, the king of Prussia received intelligence at his head quarters near Michalowo, that the city of Cracow surrendered at discretion to his general De Elfner.

In June, general Kosciuszko suffered a defeat by the Prussians near Szezokoczin; and a few days afterwards, he published an account of this battle, in which he says, 'The Prussians commenced a heavy cannonade on our lines, which was answered with great effect by the batteries on our left wing. The Prussian twenty-four pounders passed us at a great distance, while each discharge from our batteries told: a tremendous fire was kept up on both sides, and from this it was easy to form an opinion of the immense number of the enemies artillery, together with the largeness of the *calibre*. Under the protection of this fire, the enemy advanced and overpowered the Poles by numbers.'

By later intelligence, we find that the Prussians are about to attack the Poles, who are intrenched in force in the vicinity of Warsaw.

### I T A L Y.

The two hundred thousand pounds a-year, paid by Great Britain to the king of Sardinia, have neither enabled him to recover his lost dominions, nor have rendered him invulnerable to new attacks from the French. A part of his territory has for some time been defended by Austrian troops. A dissatisfaction prevails in his capital and in the island of Sardinia, on account of the unpopularity of the war with France, and some conspiracies against him have been discovered at Turin.

In April last a conspiracy was discovered in Naples; and more than three hundred persons were arrested, among whom were several of the first distinction.

With respect to Tuscany, after having been forced from her neutrality, the confederated sovereigns have apparently acquired but little advantage from her assistance.

### G E N E V A.

A revolution has lately taken place in this city, of which the following is the principal outline:

On

On the 18th of July, M. M. Soulavie and Merle, commissioners from the French convention, resident at Geneva, gave a grand dinner to the principal members of a society, intituled, The Club of the Mountain, consisting of the most violent patriots of that city. On breaking up at an early hour in the morning, the members of the club had recourse to arms, and arming the populace at the same time, took possession of the gates and arsenals. They next proceeded to select a revolutionary committee, composed of seven persons, by whom every person, inimical to their interests, was instantly apprehended, and put into confinement, to the amount of nearly a thousand.

The revolutionary committee proceeded to form a plan for the new government. The next day this plan was approved of, and the revolutionary tribunal elected, on the 21st, by about 3000 voices.

It must be observed, that at the time of this revolution, there were no French troops in the environs of Geneva. In what manner, therefore, or by what influence this insurrection has taken place, we are still ignorant. It is certain that the people there have for many years been dissatisfied with the aristocracy. Later accounts lead us to hope that the dispute is at present in a train of amicable accommodation, and this we most sincerely wish. The cause of liberty is ever disgraced by anarchy; and the reform of abuses is a very different process from the overthrow of all government and subordination. This, perhaps, in most countries might be effected without danger, were the ruling powers less tenacious, and the reformers less violent than they too commonly are.



# ALPHABETICAL INDEX

## TO THE AUTHORS' NAMES, TITLES of BOOKS, and EXTRACTS, &c.

### A.

**A**DDRESS to the inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, in reply to a printed report of the London corresponding societies, 463  
— to the people of Great Britain, on the impiety and irreligion of the French, 464  
Admiralty, plain suggestions of a British seaman respecting it, and establishing a board, &c. 107  
Agricultural dictionary, 444  
Air, inflammable, account of 167  
Adler, (Dr.) on the ancient Arabic coins, 481  
American letters, 537  
America, the public affairs of 589  
Amusement hall; or an easy introduction to the attainment of useful knowledge, 234  
Amsterdam, a description of, 329  
Anatomy, the morbid, of some of the most important parts of the human body, 372  
Andrews, David, his letter to G. Wakefield on his spirit of Christianity, &c. 229  
Antwerp, an account of, 159  
Antipathies, account of, 64  
Antiquities, military, of the Romans in North Britain, 137  
Arithmetical and mathematical repository, 359

### B.

**B**ACON, Roger, an account of, 284

Bagatelles; or poetical sketches, by E. Walfsh M. D. 223  
Bailey's, (Dr.) morbid anatomy, 372  
Ballad, a, on the death of Louis the unfortunate, 347  
Barrow, J. his description of mathematical drawing instruments, 238  
Bath, picturesque guide to, 22  
— account of, 24  
Battle between Tournay and Lille, 569  
Becket, Thomas; account of, 278  
Bedford, duke of, his motion on the war, 583  
Beddoes' observations on the nature of demonstrative evidence, 175  
Bengal sugar, an account of the method of making, &c. 354  
Bible, holy, new translation of, 121  
Bildnisse, &c.—Portraits of illustrious Germans, 492  
Birds in Great Chaco, account of, 522  
Bishop of Gloucester's sermon, before the lords in 1793, 75  
Boden's Fontainville Forest; a play, in five acts, 402  
Bodmer, the German poet, an account of, 492  
Bombay, observations on the contents of the merchants there, 354  
Botanical arrangement of British plants, 381  
Botany, indigenous, or habitations of English plants, 245  
Bouffell, John, on the near approaching of the day of universal restoration, &c. 231  
Bowring's trial of Winterbotham, 221

# I N D E X.

Bristol, account of the hot-wells there, 29  
 British patriot, the, to his fellow citizens, a poem, 349

## C.

**C**AMPER's dissertation on the physiognomy of men in different climates, 510  
 Campaign of 1793, a short review of the principal events of, 480  
 Calepin; ou grammaire philosophique, 89  
 Calm Observer, essence of, 103  
 ——— letters by a, 1  
 Caloris, observations on, 53  
 Carli's American letters, 537  
 Caroline de Montmorenci; a tale founded in fact, 234  
 Catholic baptism examined, 114  
 Catechism of man, the, 221  
 Cavendish, family of, account of, 414  
 Chaco, an essay on the natural history of, 517  
 Chemical essays, by Dr. Harrington, 235  
 Chemistry, principles of, by Dr. Peart, 165  
 Chivalry, an account of the decline of the court of, 300  
 Citizens, their duty in the present crisis, 71  
 Chronological history of the European states, from 1678, to the close of the year 1792, 414  
 Church, St. Peter's at Rome, an account of, 163  
 Clark, George Somers, his verses on the installation of the duke of Portland, 349  
 Convicts, some account of those in Port Jackson, 49  
 Coins, Arabic, an account of, 481  
 Considerations on false and real alarms, 463  
 ——— on the causes and alarming consequences of the present war, 464  
 Confessions of James Baptiste Couteau, 390  
 Contrast, the, being the speech of king George III. at the opening of his parliament, 1794, and the speech of George Washington, Dec. 3d, 1793, 225  
 Comets, on the determination of the orbits of, 263  
 Corporation and test acts, observations on, 462

Coote's, (Dr.) history of England, 271  
 Courtney on the present manners, arts, and politics, of France and Italy, 267

Crecy, description of the battle of, 285  
 Cross's, J. C. musical drama of the purse, or benevolent tar, 233  
 Crumpe, Dr. his inquiry into the nature of opium, 46  
 Crying epistle from Britannia to colonel Mack, 474  
 Cusic coins, an account of, 484  
 Culte philosophique, 551  
 Curiosities of literature, 60

## D.

**D**ALTON's meteorological observations and essays, 407  
 Dallaway's inquiries into the origin of heraldry, 297  
 Dial, directions for making an universal meridian one, 360  
 Dibdin's Younger Brother, a novel, 467  
 Discourse on the Lord's Day, 478  
 ——— on the conduct of Great Britain to neutral nations, 345  
 ——— a, on the evangelical history, 306  
 Dissertations on different subjects in natural philosophy, by Dr. Hutton, 51  
 Dralloc's life and adventures of James Moleworth, alias duke of Ormond, 479  
 Dromohaire, abbey of, 217  
 Drumcondra church in Ireland, account of, 215  
 Duncombe, Henry, Esq. M. P. a letter to, on the case of the war, 216  
 Dutch theatre, curious account of, 61  
 Duties of man, or civil order public safety, 94  
 Duckenfield lodge, a poem, 347  
 Duke of York defeated, 569  
 Duncan's medical commentaries, 8  
 Dyer, George, B. A. on slavery and famine, being punishments for sedition, 120

## E.

**E**ADON's arithmetical and mathematical repository, 359  
 Eaton, Daniel Isaac, his trial for publishing Hog's Wash, 104  
 Edward the First, character of, 282  
 Edwards, (Dr.) his remarks on Dr. Kipling's preface to Beza, 71  
 Edward's



Edwards', (Mr.) history of the British colonies in the West Indies, 16  
Education, plan of, for a limited number of young gentlemen, 120  
Eden, garden of, an account of, 124  
Eloquence, principles of, 314  
Elementary dialogues for the improvement of youth, 100  
Electricity, medical effects of, 335  
England, history of, 271  
Englefield, (sir Henry,) on the determination of the orbits of comets, 263  
Evans, (John,) his juvenile pieces, 474  
Evidence, demonstrative observations on the nature of, 175  
Extermination, or an appeal to the people of England, 223  
Exposition of the old Testament, 410

F.

FAN-Feredit, the wonderful travels of the prince of, 356  
Falconer's, (Dr.) miscellaneous tracts and collections, relating to natural history, selected from the writers of antiquity, 193  
Ferdinand and Constance, a sentimental romance, 544  
Fire, a new method to extinguish, 239  
Fits in infants, cases of, 147  
Fleury, cardinal, some observations on his character, 400  
Footman's, the, pamphlet, or arguments against the Unitarians, 229  
Fontainville Forest, a play, in five acts, 402  
Forbes' treatise upon gravel and gout, 392  
Forcipum historia, 548  
Foreign literature, occasional retrospect of, 555  
Fox, (Charles,) observations on his conduct, and his opposition, in the last sessions of parliament, 345  
Francomania, French madness, 227  
France, present manners of, 267  
—— a review of public affairs in, 563  
Franklin's, (Dr.) works, 441  
Freedom, an attempt to establish its basis on simple and unerring principles, by Mr. Patton, 106  
Frenchmen, enormities committed by them investigated, and a remedy proposed, 346

G.

GERMANY, public affairs of, 589  
Geddes', (Dr.) his holy bible, 121  
George the Third, history of the reign of, 254  
Germaine, lord George, character of, 257  
Geneva, account of the revolution of, 591  
Gideon's cake of barley-meal, 226  
Glimpse through the gloom, a, 103  
Godwin, William, his novel of Things as they are, 290  
Grafton, duke, character of, 237  
Grammont, memoirs of the count of, 515  
Great Britain, review of the public affairs of, 579  
Gretry's essay on music, 514  
Greeks, philosophical dissertation on, 77  
Grimani, Mr. his Talepin; ou, grammaire philosophique, 89  
Grose's antiquities of Ireland, 208  
Gunning's, (Miss) novel of the packet, 178  
Gymnastica democratica, 348

H.

HAGEDORN, the German poet, an account of, 498  
Hague, the description of, 105  
Hannibal, the course of, over the Alps ascertained, 447  
Haller, the German poet, an account of, 497  
Hamilton's memoirs of the count de Grammont, 515  
Happiness, human, and the government of the passions, two didactic essays on, 112  
Harrington's, (Dr.) chemical essays, 235  
Haunted priory, the, or the fortunes of the house of Rayo, a romance, 468  
Hafmonæorum numorum assertio epistolaris, 553  
Haygarth, (Dr.) plan for exterminating the small-pox, 35  
Hawkesbury's, (lord,) discourse on the conduct of Great Britain to neutral nations, 345  
Head, the, and limbs, a fable, 349  
Heathcote's observations on the corporation and test acts, 462  
S s 2 Heart,

Heart, the malformation of, 373  
 Helme's William Henry Stukely;  
 or, the effects of dissipation, 467  
 Henry Stukely; or, the effects of dis-  
 sipation, 467  
 Heralds, an account of the visitation  
 of, 302  
 Herodotus, the history of, translated  
 from the Greek, 434  
 Heraldry, inquiries into the origin of,  
 296  
 Hints preparatory to the approaching  
 fast, 233  
 History of May-flower, a fairy tale,  
 233  
 — of the church and a warming  
 pan, 225  
 —, natural, miscellaneous tracts  
 relating to, 193  
 Hiero, on the condition of royalty,  
 431  
 Hopes and expectations, grounded on  
 the present situation of the emi-  
 grant clergy in England, 106  
 Howe's naval victory, 585  
 Hutchins, capt. his discovery, settle-  
 ment, and present state of Ken-  
 tucky, 239  
 Hutton, Dr. his dissertations in natu-  
 ral philosophy, 52  
 Hydrophobia, facts relative to, 145  
 Hyde park, an account of, 22

I.

**I**BBETSON's picturesque guide to  
 Bath, Bristol hot-wells, &c. 22  
 Impress of seamen, on the, 442  
 Ireland, antiquities of, 208  
 Island of Atlantis, 538  
 Israeli, D', his curiosities of litera-  
 ture, 60  
 Italy, public affairs of, 591

J.

**J**ACOBIN principles, observations  
 and reflections on the origin of,  
 &c. 102  
 James's powder, experiments to inves-  
 tigate the composition of, 148  
 James the First, anecdote of, 64  
 Jefferson, John, esq. his correspon-  
 dence with George Hammond, esq.  
 340  
 Jephson's translation of Couteau's  
 confessions, 390  
 Jerriugham's siege of Berwick, a tra-  
 gedie, 326

Jurors; observations on the rights and  
 duties of, in cases of libel, 341  
 Juvenile pieces, designed for the youth  
 of both sexes, 474  
 Kentucky, discovery and present state  
 of, 239  
 Kipling, Dr. remarks on his preface  
 to Beza, 72  
 Knox, William, letter to sir John  
 Sinclair, 239

L.

**L**AMBALLE, princess of, verses  
 on, 350  
 Lake's translation of Maury's princi-  
 ples of eloquence, 314  
 Laws concerning literary property,  
 109  
 — respecting the ordinary prac-  
 tice of imposition in money lending,  
 and the buying and selling of pub-  
 lic offices, 110  
 Lempriere's translation of Herodotus,  
 434  
 Lettre d'un Francois a un Anglais, sur  
 les opinions politiques, et de la  
 souveraineté du peuple, 346  
 Letter to Mr. Pitt, on the war with  
 France, 223  
 Letters, additional, of Brutus, 233  
 — to a young man, by Dr.  
 Priestley, 104  
 — to a gentleman of the philan-  
 thropic society, on the liberty of  
 the press, 118  
 — to the greatest hypocrite in his  
 majesty's dominions, 107  
 — on the concert of princes, and  
 the dismemberment of Poland and  
 France, 1  
 — thirteen, on various religious  
 subjects, 358  
 — two, to the rev. Matthew  
 Wilks, 479  
 — to the duke of Grafton, 464  
 Libel, the case of, the king v. John  
 Lambert and others, printers of  
 the Morning Chronicle, 341  
 Libels, observations on, 342  
 Literary and critical remarks, on sun-  
 dry eminent divines and philoso-  
 phers, 396  
 Logarithms, tables of, from one to  
 101,000, 331  
 Longitude, the theory and practice of  
 finding, 471  
 — discovered, by a new ma-  
 thematical instrument, called gra-  
 phor, 469  
 Loy.



# I N D E X.

Loyalty, the triumph of, a poem, 351  
 Looking-glass for a right honourable  
 mendicant, 462  
 Louis XIV. a new age of, 534  
 Lucy, a novel, 234  
 Lungs, theory of, 9

## M.

**M**ACKAY's theory and practice  
 of finding the longitude, 471  
 Macleod, colonel, considerations on  
 false and real alarms, 463  
 Magic lantern, the, 341  
 Mathematical drawing instruments,  
 description of, 238  
 Maury's principles of eloquence, 314  
 Mayo's chronological history, 414  
 Medical commentaries for the year  
 1793, 8  
 — facts and observations, 144  
 Meditation, the, of a silent senator,  
 233  
 Memoir on the circles of reflexion,  
 &c. 532  
 Meteorological observations and essays,  
 407  
 Militia, a sketch of the abuses in,  
 with observations on officers on half  
 pay, &c. 104  
 Miller, William, on catholic baptism,  
 114  
 Milne's, (Dr.) indigenous botany, 248  
 Milns's well-bred scholar, 237  
 Moleworth, James, alias Griffin, alias  
 duke of Ormond, his life and ad-  
 ventures, 479  
 Monk's agricultural dictionary, 444  
 Mornington, lord, substance of his  
 speech in the commons, Jan. 21st,  
 1794, 344  
 Moses, character of, 122  
 Mount Cenis, account of, 425  
 Mulder's historia forcipum, 548  
 Murder, on the punishment of, by  
 death, 191  
 Muscular action, treatise on, 218  
 Musæ Berkhamstediensis, or practical  
 proflusions, by some young gentlemen  
 of Berkhamsted-school, 111  
 Muir, Thomas, the trial of, for sedi-  
 tion, 108  
 Music, essay on, 524  
 Mysteries, the, of Udolpho, a romance,  
 361

## N.

**N**Ecromancer, the, or the tale of  
 the Black Forest, 469  
 Netherlands, a gazetteer of the, 319  
 Neutrality, armed, the account of,  
 260  
 Newfoundland island, history of the  
 government of, 238  
 New South Wales, account of the na-  
 tives of, 47  
 Novels, an essay on, 416  
 Northmore's translation of Plutarch's  
 treatise upon the distinction between  
 a friend and flatterer, 322  
 North, lord, character of, 257  
 Nott, Dr. his dissertation on the Ther-  
 mal waters of Pisa, 188

## O.

**O**bservations on a current that  
 often prevails to the westward  
 of Scilly, 236  
 Ode on converting a sword into a  
 pruning hook, 171  
 Odes, moral and descriptive, 378  
 Ode, a farewell one, on a distant pro-  
 spect of Cambridge, 473  
 Offices, public, present state of, re-  
 specting fees, &c. 346  
 Opium, inquiry into the nature of, 66  
 Orton's exposition of the Old Testa-  
 ment, 410  
 Owen, on the state of religion and  
 politics in France and Great Britain,  
 341

## P.

**P**ACKET, the, a novel, 178  
 Panzani, remarks on the memoirs  
 of, 458  
 Patton on freedom, 106  
 Parliament, essay on, 222  
 Parma, a description of a printing-  
 house there, 422  
 Parsons, (Mrs.) Lucy, a novel, 234  
 Pasquin's crying epistle from Britannia  
 to colonel Mack, 474  
 Pauw, M. de, his philosophical disser-  
 tation on the Greeks, 77  
 Peace with the Jacobins impossible,  
 466  
 Peace, of 1782, account of, 262  
 Peart, Dr. on the properties of mat-  
 ter, the principles of chemistry, &c.  
 165  
 Phy-

# I N D E X.

Physiognomy of men in different climates, a dissertation on, 510  
Pisa, a chemical dissertation on the Thermal waters of, 188  
Pitt and Hastings, their merits as ministers in war and peace, 107  
Pitt, Mr. a reply to his speech on the opening of parliament, Jan. 21st, 1794, on the object and grounds of the present war, 104  
Plymley's charge at the primary visitation of the archdeaconry of Salop, in 1793, 230  
Plowden's remarks on the memoirs of Panzani, 458  
Plays, the, of Lear and Cymbeline, by William Shakspeare, with notes, 387  
Playfair's peace with the Jacobins impossible, 466  
Plutarch's treatise upon the distinction between a friend and flatterer, 322  
Poems, by the late Mr. Samuel Marsh Oram, 475  
—, lyric and pastoral, 168  
—, by John Eidlake, 304  
Poor, history of the, 30  
Poland, public affairs of, 591  
Pope, the works of, by Gilbert Wakefield, 181  
Port Jackson, account of, 44  
Portal's observations on pulmonary consumption, 501  
Portici, description of the museum at, 420  
Portraits of illustrious Germans, 492  
Pott's discourse on the Lords day, 478  
Pressing, loose hints to prevent, 107  
Priestley's, Dr. letter to a young man, occasioned by Mr. Evanfon's treatise on the dissonance of the four evangelists, 204  
Primrose Hill, an ode, recited on Sept. 22, 1793, 171  
Property, literary laws concerning, 109  
Psalms, a liberal version of the, into modern language, 375  
Public affairs, a review of, 563  
Pugh, John, his treatise on the science of muscular action, 218  
Pulmonary consumption, observations on the nature and treatment of, 501  
Purse, the, a musical drama, 235

## Q

Quadrupeds of the province of Great Chaco in Paraguay, 520  
Queen Elizabeth, an original letter of, 62

## R.

**R**ADCLIFFE's, Mrs. mysteries of Udolpho, 361  
Ramsea, sir John, his fable of the head and limbs, 349  
Reasons for national penitence, 114  
Reeve's history of the government of Newfoundland, 238  
Reformers of England, a friendly address to, 222  
Reflexion sur le proces de la Meine, par une Femme, 346  
Relics in Christ church, Dublin, 213  
Religion of nature, the, a short discourse delivered before the national assembly at Paris, 119  
Rennel's, James, esq. observations on a current that often prevails to the westward of Scilly, 236  
Reptiles in Great Chaco, an account of, 522  
Reply of the count Lally Tolendal to the abbé D—, grand vicar, 531  
Retrospect, the, or reflections on the state of religion and politics in France and Great Britain, 341  
Rich, hints to those that would become so, 441  
Robinson's (Mr.) Sydney St. Aubyn, a novel, 468  
—, Miss, M. E. her shrine of Bertha, 468  
Robb, Rev. W. on human happiness and the government of the passions, 112  
Robespierre, execution of, 578  
Rome, description of the carnival there, 412  
Rose, the, an ode to, 366  
Rowley's, Dr. practice of physic, 333  
Roy, general, his military antiquities of the Romans in North Britain, 137  
Ruggle's history of the poor, 30  
Rush, Dr. on the punishment of murder by death, 191  
Russia, some account of, 3

## S.

**S**acrificing of men in Guinea, 542  
Scholar, the well-bred, 237  
Scotland, conquest of, by Edward the First, 280  
Sea-nymph, the, a poem, 369  
Selion's sermons, on various subjects, 96  
Selico, an African tale, translated into Eng.



English verse, from the French  
 prose of M. Florian, 108  
 Sermon by the bishop of Gloucester,  
 — by William Jones, 113  
 — delivered on the 6th of Feb.  
 1685—6, 113  
 — by Coetlogon, 114  
 — by Johnson, John, for the fast  
 1794, 116  
 — by William Reid, 117  
 — by William Herdman, 231  
 — by Wollaston, 232  
 — by Rowden, *ibid.*  
 — by Pearson, *ibid.*  
 — by Dr. Brown of Utrecht,  
 — by the bishop of London, 233  
 — to crowned heads, 344  
 — by the bishop of Carlisle, 439  
 — by Dr. Layard, 476  
 — by Robert Walker, 478  
 — by Dr. Erskine, 479  
 — by George Richards, 358  
 — by John Humphrys, 359  
 Sermons on various subjects, by Selon,  
 — 96  
 Serpent in the garden of Eden, con-  
 jectures of, 125  
 Seymour's translation of Campe's dia-  
 logues, for the improvement of  
 youth, 100  
 Shrine of Bertha, a novel, 468  
 Siege, the, of Berwick, a tragedy,  
 — 316  
 Sinclair, sir John, a letter to, 239  
 Six, James, esq. his construction and  
 use of the thermometer, 470  
 Sketch of a tour on the continent, in  
 the years 1786 and 1787, 418  
 Skirving's trial, 461  
 Slavery and famine, punishments for  
 sedition, 120  
 Sleep, stanzas to, 379  
 Smith's, (Dr.) tour on the continent,  
 — 418  
 —'s, Dr. Edward, sketch of a  
 tour on the continent in the year  
 1786, and 1787, 155  
 Small-pox, plan for exterminating of,  
 — 35  
 Smith, Charlotte, her Wanderings of  
 Warwick, 84  
 Social compact, two systems of, 222  
 Songster, the annual political, 228  
 Sonnet to the memory of a friend, 475  
 Spain, history of, 399  
 Specimens of the manner in which  
 public worship is conducted in dis-  
 senting congregations, 476  
 Speech of William Adam, esq. in the

house of commons, in behalf of  
 Thomas Muir and Fyshe Palmer,  
 — 465  
 Stockdale, Percival, on the liberty of  
 the press, 118  
 Struma, or scrofula, commonly called  
 the king's evil, a treatise on, 110  
 Sugar, an account of making it in  
 Bengal, 352  
 Syriacum elementale sistens gramma-  
 ticam, 550  
 Sydney St. Aubyn, in a series of let-  
 ters, 468  
 T.

TEARS of the muse, the an e-  
 legiac poem, 474  
 Teeth, on the diseases of, 235  
 Tench, capt. his account of Port  
 Jackson, 44  
 Tallagh church in Ireland, account  
 of, 214  
 Taylor's table of logarithms, 33  
 Thames, the present state of, consid-  
 ered, 480  
 Thermometer, the, construction and  
 use of a, 470  
 Theatres, an inquiry into the costume  
 of those of all nations, 527  
 Things as they are, or the adventures  
 of Caleb Williams, 290  
 Thoughts on the nature of true devo-  
 tion, 477  
 Thurlow, lord, character of, 258  
 Townson's, (Dr.) discourse on the e-  
 vangelical history, 306  
 Tocsin of Britannia, 338  
 Travels in Guinea and in the Caribbee  
 Islands in America, 540  
 Treatise, a, upon gravel and gout, 392  
 Trial of Mr. Walker of Manchester,  
 — 466  
 — of William Skirving, 461  
 Trinity, remarks on, 396  
 Tychsen, professor, on the Syriac  
 grammar, 550  
 —'s, (Mr.) assertio numorum  
 Hafmonæorum, 553

V.

VANDERSTEGEN, esq. his re-  
 ply to a pamphlet, intitled, Re-  
 futation of charges, &c. respecting  
 frauds in the salt duties, 120  
 —, William, esq. his pre-  
 sent state of the Thames, 480  
 Vectis, utility of, 548  
 Venereal disease, sketches of facts and  
 opinions respecting it, 472  
 Versailles, an account of, 160  
 Ver-

- Verdes on the installation of the Duke  
of Portland, chancellor of the uni-  
versity, 349  
Villeroi, the count de, a tragedy, 141  
Voice of truth, the, against the cor-  
ruptions in church and state, 465

## W.

- W**AKEFIELD's edition of Pope's  
works, 181  
—, (G.) a letter to, on his spi-  
rit of Christianity, compared with  
the spirit of the times, 229  
—'s Horace, 246  
Wake's literal version of the Psalms,  
375  
Walker's, of Manchester, trial, 466  
Wanderings of Warwick, the, 84  
Walkey on the diseases of the teeth,  
235  
Walsh, Dr. poetical sketches by, 228  
War, advantages to be derived from  
the present, 461  
—, the duke of Bedford's motion  
on, 583  
—, the, objections to, examined and  
refuted, 344  
—, the case of the, considered, 226  
—, considerations on the French, in  
a letter to Mr. Pitt, 223  
—, thoughts on the present, with  
France, addressed to all ranks of  
people, 105

- West Indies, civil and commercial his-  
tory of, 16  
Whitaker's course of Hannibal over  
the Alps, 447  
Whitehouse's odes, moral and descrip-  
tive, 378  
White, Thomas, on the king's evil,  
&c. 110  
William the Conqueror, character of,  
273  
William, Edward, poems by, 168  
Winterbotham, William; the trial of,  
for sedition, 224  
Windsor Forest, a poem, 183  
Winchester's three woe trumpets, 358  
Witena-gemot, or great council, an  
account of, 287  
Withering's, (Dr.) botanical arrange-  
ment of British plants, 381  
Woollaston's directions for making an  
universal meridian dial, 360  
Wool, on the improvement of, 556  
Wyvil's sermon, on the 6th of Feb.  
1685—6. 113

## X.

- X**ENOPHON's Hero, a translation  
of, 431

## Y.

- Y**EAR, division of the, into  
months, 197  
Younger Brother, the, a novel, 467  
Ypres, surrender of, 571

## END OF THE ELEVENTH VOLUME.



